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PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION PUBLICATIONS

Commission on the Relation of School and College

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ADVENTURE
IN
AMERICAN EDUCATION

Volume II
Exploring the Curriculum

ADVENTURE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION



Volume I

The Story of the Eight-Year Study

by

Wilford M. Aikin

Volume II

Exploring the Curriculum

The Work of the Thirty Schools

from the Viewpoint of Curriculum Consultants

by

H. H. Giles, S. P. McCutchen, and A. N. Zechiel

Volume III

Appraising and Recording Student Progress

Evaluation, Records and Reports

in the Thirty Schools

by

Eugene R. Smith, Ralph W. Tyler
and the Evaluation Staff

Volume IV

Did They Succeed in College?

The Follow-up Study of the

Graduates of the Thirty Schools

by

Dean Chamberlin, Enid Straw Chamberlin

Neal E. Drought and William E. Scott

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Volume V

Thirty Schools Tell Their Story

Each School Writes of Its Participation

in the Eight-Year Study

The Commission on the Relation of School and College
of
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ADVENTURE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION VOLUME II



EXPLORING THE CURRICULUM

*The Work of the Thirty Schools from the
Viewpoint of Curriculum Consultants*



H. H. GILES, S. P. McCUTCHEN
and A. N. ZECHIEL



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EXPLORING THE CURRICULUM

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v

The Progressive Education Association
the Commission and the Schools
gratefully acknowledge their indebtedness
to
CARNEGIE CORPORATION OF NEW YORK
and to the
GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD
for the funds which made this Study possible

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v

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¹ Many changes in administration occurred in the schools during the period of the Study. Such cases are indicated by names in parentheses given in chronological order of service.

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University High School, Oakland, Cal.	(George Rice) Paul T. Fleming
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CONTENTS



FOREWORD	xvii
INTRODUCTION	xix
I. THE CENTRAL PURPOSES OF EDUCATION	1
The Genesis of Educational Objectives	2
The Specific Objectives of General Education	6
The Statement of Objectives	12
Summary	20
II. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM	22
The Basis for Curriculum Classification	22
Types of Curriculum Organizations: Broad-Fields	
Courses	23
The Core Curriculum, Based on Adult Needs	32
The Core Curriculum, Based on Adolescent Needs	44
The Re-organization of "Subjects"	61
Conclusion	68
III. THE WHAT AND WHEN OF INSTRUCTION	69
Scope and Sequence Problems in Des Moines	70
Education for Tomorrow or for Today?	76
Scope and Sequence Problems in Tulsa	93
Summary	99
IV. CLASSROOM PRACTICES	102
Practice Is Determined by Purpose, Purpose Is	
Determined by Practice	102
Authoritarian vs. Democratic Practice	105
Procedures for Democratic Practice	111
Purposes	120
Topics of Study	124
Methods of Work on Topics	131
Summary	151
V. THE INTEGRATION OF SCHOOL LIFE	158
School Government	158

Whole-School Projects	165
School Clubs	171
The Home-Room	174
Problem-Solving	176
The Use of Community Resources	179
Summary	182
VI. ADMINISTRATION AS THE SERVANT OF EDUCATION	184
School Staffs Define School Policies	184
Policy Councils of City School Systems	187
Increasing the Effectiveness of Classroom Teachers in the Guidance Program	193
Interpreting the School to the Community	202
A Challenge to Administrative Officers	208
VII. GROWTH BY TEACHERS: ON THE JOB	210
Prerequisites to Professional Development	214
Experiences that Contribute to Teacher Growth	218
What Is the Record Regarding the Values of These Procedures?	223
Coordination of Schools and Curriculum	248
School-Community Relations	253
Educational Surveys	255
Broadened Experience not Primarily Professional	257
Participation in Life of Community	258
Summary	259
VIII. GROWTH BY TEACHERS: THROUGH SPECIAL AGENCIES	260
Special Study	260
Institutes and Special Courses	266
Seminars within Schools	267
Exchange Positions	268
Professional Associations	268
Special Consultants	270
Summary, Chapters VII and VIII	289
IX. IN CONCLUSION	293
The Social Structure of the School	294
The Teacher	306
Organization of Classroom Materials and Procedures	309

CONTENTS

xv

APPENDIX

Typical Points of Focus of Concerns of Adolescents	315
The Core Program at East High School, Denver	320
The Core Curriculum in the Tulsa Public Schools	328
Analysis of Community Resources	337

FOREWORD



The Commission on the Relation of School and College was established by the Progressive Education Association in 1930 when the people of the United States were beginning to look upon their political, economic, and social institutions with critical eyes. They were insisting that each institution justify its place in the nation's life. Education did not escape this challenge. The Commission was born out of a conviction that secondary education in the United States could not justify the high place it held without rendering greater service to all the nation's youth. Now, twelve years later, when the democratic concept of human society is being assailed by terrible forces of world destruction, the Commission reports its efforts to unite our institutions of secondary and higher education in renewed devotion to the welfare of American youth.

In this volume of the Report three men tell of their experience in working with the Thirty Schools. As the schools attempted to meet the needs of their students more effectively, they faced difficult problems of administration, curriculum revision, and methods of teaching. They asked help with these problems. To provide assistance, these three men and others were chosen to go to the schools as curriculum consultants to help in any way they could.

There was no certainty that anyone could render much service. Certainly no one could bring to the schools the final answers to their questions. It was thought, however, that teachers who had demonstrated qualities of leadership in their own work might be able to help other teachers if time and opportunity were provided. With much hope and some trepidation the Consultants began their visits to the schools.

Within a period of two years they had rendered such valuable service that the schools unanimously asked that their work be continued.

The Curriculum Consultants sought to see each teacher's problem from the teacher's point of view, then to help with its solution. Teachers were quick to respond to suggestions when they felt that the Consultant possessed sympathetic understanding and practicable ideas. Of course, the Consultants were more needed and more helpful in some situations than in others. As their work developed, each one discovered where his efforts would be most fruitful. Therefore, during the later years of the Study, they worked with fewer schools for longer periods than in the beginning.

The schools and Consultants emphasize the importance of continuity of curriculum assistance. Doubtless there is some value in having help for a week or for a day by someone from outside a school or school system. However, experience has taught that the second visit is more than twice as helpful as the first, and that repeated visits of a week or more each semester, year after year, have a cumulative value beyond computation. Teachers and Consultants thus become friends and partners in adventure.

As never before, the high schools of the United States are striving to satisfy the needs of youth. They are asking for help in meeting their new responsibilities. There are many who are qualified to render valuable assistance. Colleges of education, state departments of education, and regional educational associations would do well to use time and money in providing such aid to the schools they serve. It is not too much to expect that the experience of the Curriculum Consultants and the Thirty Schools will point the way to more fruitful use of educational leadership by schools generally. Only as the teachers in the high schools and leaders in education unite their strength can youth be fully served.

WILFORD M. AIKIN

INTRODUCTION

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In 1936, when the Curriculum Staff of the Eight-Year Study was first established, there were no blue-prints for the functions it was to serve. Its members were drawn directly from classrooms of secondary schools and universities. Most curriculum consultants and directors of curriculum laboratories work in terms of their own philosophies, assumptions, hypotheses, and frames of reference. The members of the Staff of the Eight-Year Study were to go to each school on the basis of invitation only and *to work with that school on its problems in the light of its philosophy*, with due regard to the extent of progress in its educational thinking. The only authority the staff members would have would be the persuasiveness of their criticism and the worth of their ideas. There was never any *ex officio* influence to bolster them, or any *ex cathedra* weight to their pronouncements.

Creating the Curriculum Staff was the last step in building the organization of the Eight-Year Study. In 1932 Wilford M. Aikin and his associates had constructively rebelled against the college domination of high-school programs. They had seen how every student going to college had been required to conform to the same general pattern of entrance units. They had been distressed also by the way in which preparation for college entrance had restricted and hampered secondary schools' efforts to improve the educational programs of that huge majority of students who did not go to college.

Under the auspices of the Progressive Education Association, they established the Commission on the Relation of School and College with membership drawn from among outstanding leaders in secondary and higher education.

After thorough discussion of the problem, this group prepared a plan and submitted it to every accredited college and university in the United States. The proposal was that the Commission should select a group of secondary schools, about thirty in number, representative of different geographical sections and of various sizes and types of schools. The schools would be selected by 1933 and would spend three years in reconstructing their curricula. The colleges were requested to accept the graduates of these schools, beginning in 1936 and continuing for a five-year period, on the basis of the individuality of the student, without regard for prescribed entrance units or entrance examinations. Almost all colleges and universities agreed to the proposals and the Eight-Year Study was born.

The schools selected were:

Altoona High School, Altoona, Pennsylvania

Baldwin School, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

Beaver Country Day School, Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts

Bronxville High School, Bronxville, New York

Cheltenham Township High School, Elkins Park, Pennsylvania

Dalton Schools, New York, New York

Denver Senior and Junior High Schools, Denver, Colorado

Des Moines Senior and Junior High Schools, Des Moines, Iowa

Eagle Rock High School, Los Angeles, California

Fieldston School, New York, New York

Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Illinois

Friends' Central School, Overbrook, Pennsylvania

George School, George School, Pennsylvania

Germantown Friends School, Germantown, Pennsylvania

Horace Mann School, New York, New York

John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri

Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York, New York

Milton Academy, Milton, Massachusetts
New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois
North Shore Country Day School, Winnetka, Illinois
Radnor High School, Wayne, Pennsylvania
Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio
Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware
Tulsa Senior and Junior High Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma
University of Chicago High School, Chicago, Illinois
University High School, Oakland, California
University School of Ohio State University, Columbus,
Ohio
Winsor School, Boston, Massachusetts
Wisconsin High School, Madison, Wisconsin

When the Eight-Year Study was in its infancy, it was believed that its machinery could be very simple. A Directing Committee, made up of persons who would contribute spare time, and a Director who would administer the details while he ran a school, seemed all that would be necessary. Since one of the fundamental premises of the Study was the right of each school to do as it wished with the freedom given to it by the colleges, seemingly all that would be necessary would be for the Directing Committee to give the schools encouragement from time to time.

The first disturbance to the pleasant simplicity of this arrangement occurred when the member schools agreed that, since the colleges would be deprived of their usual, conventional codes of information concerning entering students, such as entrance units and examinations, the schools in the Study should furnish the colleges with other and more pertinent information. A subcommittee of the Directing Committee was therefore set up to determine ways of describing high school graduates to the colleges. When this Committee made its report, some of the schools felt that if they conformed to its suggestions, they would be forced to teach

particular things, and teach them in ways not compatible with their thinking. In other words, the Committee's report seemed to challenge the autonomy of the schools, and some schools said that they would withdraw from the Study rather than conform. To meet this difficulty, the first element of professionalism entered the Study.

Receiving funds from the General Education Board for the purpose, the Directing Committee secured the services of Ralph W. Tyler. He established an Evaluation Staff for the Eight-Year Study, and set out to help each school to evaluate its work in relation to its own goals. Naturally, this required each school to state its objectives and, as the schools turned to examine the ways by which they were seeking to realize their purposes, many of them felt the need for help in changing their curricula. Therefore, in 1936, other funds were secured from the General Education Board, and a Curriculum Staff was employed.¹

During the four years of its consultant service, the roster of the Curriculum Staff included nine names. The span of service of each man and his area of specialization are as follows:

1. Wilford M. Aikin, Chairman of the Commission, gave up the directorship of the John Burroughs School in 1935 to devote the major portion of his time to directing the Study. His work as a Consultant has been chiefly with superintendents and principals in the area of democratic leadership in curriculum reconstruction.

2. Harold B. Alberty, while carrying a full-time load as Professor of Education at Ohio State University, found time to work on the Staff for three months in 1937, and for a similar period in 1938. His task was to help the schools

¹ Between the establishment of the Evaluation Staff and the Curriculum Staff, another professional group had been established to study the graduates of the schools in some of the colleges in order to gather evidence of the success of their high school preparation. Its work is known as the College Follow-up Study.

clarify their philosophies. From his efforts came an increased interest in the core curriculum as developed in Denver, Tulsa and elsewhere.

3. Paul B. Diederich, a teacher of Latin in the University School of Ohio State University, joined the Evaluation Staff in 1934. During 1936-37 and 1937-38 he divided his time between the Evaluation Staff and the curriculum work. His fields of specialty included foreign languages, English, and the arts.

4. H. H. Giles joined the Staff on a part-time basis in 1937. He was a teacher of English and experimental work in other fields at the University School of Ohio State University. From 1938 to the end of the Study he gave all his time as Consultant in English and the arts on the Curriculum Staff.

5. Henry Harap, during 1936-37, maintained a curriculum laboratory at Ohio State University for the aid of the schools. His work with the Staff came to an end in 1937 when he accepted a post at Peabody College.

6. Walter V. Kaulfers, on leave from Stanford University for three months of the autumn of 1938, visited the schools as a member of the Staff, working with the teachers of foreign languages.

7. John A. Lester devoted part of his time from 1935 to 1941 to curriculum work in the area of English. Mr. Lester concentrated his efforts largely in the schools in the Study which are on the Atlantic seaboard.

8. S. P. McCutchen left the John Burroughs School in 1936 to work full-time as Consultant in the social studies.

9. A. N. Zechiel came to the Staff from the Tower Hill School. During 1936-37, he was on a half-time basis in each position. From September 1937 to the end of the Study, he served as full-time Consultant in science and mathematics.

It would be highly misleading to think of any of these men as confining their interests, thinking, or services to the areas

of specialization under which they have nominally been listed. The demands made upon them, and their own educational philosophy led them so frequently into other areas that the term "generalist" rather than "specialist" is needed to describe them.

The Eight-Year Study, begun in 1932, closed in 1941. On the members of the Curriculum Staff serving in 1940-41—Giles, McCutchen and Zechiel—falls the task of reporting on curriculum developments. The assignment might have been limited to the job of reporting, with an attempt to be photographic, recording merely what has happened in and to the curricula of the Thirty Schools. However, the three men concerned felt that in reporting on curriculum developments in the Thirty Schools they could not be merely reporters or "photographers." So much has happened in each school in the Study that a volume to each school would be insufficient to tell its whole story. To compress the stories of all the schools would inevitably mean selection, and the authors of this volume would reveal their bias or educational beliefs by the things which they selected for inclusion or omission. Even if objectivity of selection could be attained, the choice of words in reporting would reveal the Staff's position to the astute reader. Hence it was decided not to attempt to be reporters only, but openly to be protagonists of a point of view. As a result of working in the schools and of working together, the members of the Staff feel that they have a unified point of view toward the curriculum. The chapters which follow are attempts to present the work of the schools from that point of view. If differences of styles of presentation are apparent to the reader, this joint authorship is responsible.

EXPLORING THE CURRICULUM



Chapter I

THE CENTRAL PURPOSES OF EDUCATION

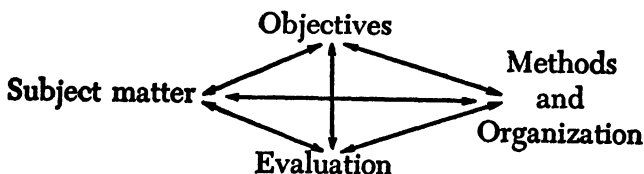


In planning an educational program, four problems face the planning group: What is to be done? What subject matter is to be used? What classroom procedures and school organization are to be followed? How are the results of the program to be appraised? These problems are in reality not single problems. Each question represents a category within which many problems are found. In other words, a planning group faces the necessity of making choices in four major areas—objectives, subject matter, methods and organization, and evaluation.

A very close relationship exists among the problems within these categories. The statements of objectives serve as criteria for the selection of subject matter and teaching methods. As a school staff attempts to solve problems dealing with choices of subject matter or method, new insights are gained as to purposes to be served. Subject matter may be selected in order to meet certain objectives but, in order to do so effectively, must be dealt with by methods pointed toward the same objectives. Questions of evaluation are closely related to all other problems. For example, does the subject matter selected contribute to the objectives? Does it do so more effectively than other subject matter available? The same questions as to the effectiveness of method need investigation. The close interrelationships existing among the categories are shown below in diagram form.

The schools participating in the program of the Commission on the Relation of School and College¹ have been con-

¹ The program of the Commission on the Relation of School and College



cerned with educational planning. They have attempted solution of problems involving the statement of objectives, choice of subject matter, choice of methods and organization, and techniques of evaluation. This chapter deals with the formulation and statement of objectives. A discussion of the objectives of general education, as gleaned from an examination of the programs of the participating schools, is included.

THE GENESIS OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

A study of the history of education reveals many different purposes in operation. In primitive cultures the educational program, largely informal, was designed to teach the learner to acquire food, shelter, and clothing. Hence the aims were utilitarian in nature. Next, as societies became more involved in their organization, education undertook to instruct youth to understand the mores of the culture, and to teach them the means of preserving and extending the social forms. The aims of this type of educational program may be called descriptive. Then, as cultures became more permanent and stabilized themselves, they acquired certain characteristics, values, and morals and it became the function of education to inculcate these in the youth of the society. These aims may be termed religious.

The educational program in this country at the time of the institution of our public school system stated its purposes in all three of these categories—utilitarian, descriptive, and

is frequently referred to as "the Eight-Year Study" and "the Thirty School Study." For the sake of brevity, the term "the Eight-Year Study" will be used throughout this volume.

religious—and expected to attain them through the study of organized fields of subject matter. When it became apparent that purposes were not automatically achieved by the mastery of the various subjects, educational theory changed. The heyday of faculty psychology was ushered in. Utilitarian and religious aims were replaced by that of *training the mind*. The descriptive aims were maintained, and drill on factual information continued—partly in the guise of memory training and partly as a means of transmitting the cultural heritage.

Under this theory all individuals were presumed to have minds possessing identical faculties that needed training. Education was carried on with little or no regard for the interests or needs of the learner. The secondary school placed its emphasis on college preparation. The report of the “Committee of Ten”² gave impetus to this trend. This committee stated that no differentiation in courses should be made between students who intended to go to college and those who expected to enter vocational work. Trained mental faculties, through mental discipline, were assumed to be the chief responsibility of the secondary school as a preparation for both life and advanced education.

Under the disciplinary aim, subject matter was classified, systematized, and formalized. The cultural heritage was transmitted through courses thus systematized. The fact that knowledge organized in this way made its mastery more difficult for the learner was considered a point in its favor, for it supposedly had greater *disciplinary value*. Although psychological research has given experimental proof that the theory of mental discipline is inadequate, much of our current educational practice can be justified by no other assumption. Assigning problems selected for their difficulty,

² *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies*, published for the National Education Association, New York City, American Book Co., 1894.

requiring memorization of large amounts of factual material, drill in abstract reasoning may be cited as evidence of the continued acceptance of mental discipline as an aim of education.

In 1918 the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education issued a report, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*.³ This report was among the first of the attempts to make education more functional in nature. The report held that education should contribute to: (1) health (2) command of fundamental processes (3) worthy home membership (4) vocation (5) citizenship (6) worthy use of leisure and (7) ethical character. These do not represent educational aims but are rather categories of "human activity." They are based primarily on the principle of *effective adaptation*. The individual is engaged in the work of the world, has a certain amount of leisure time, lives in a home and community, uses goods and services, has problems requiring cooperative action of the social group, and forms some kind of a workable philosophy of life. These concerns and activities impose demands on the individual which must be met, and problems inherent in these demands must be solved, or unhappiness and maladjustment result.

These areas of activity were exhaustively analyzed by curriculum builders. The result was such an enormous list of activities that they could not be considered seriously. No school could attempt to teach specifically each detail of daily living. These analyses had the additional disadvantage that they focused upon adult activities rather than upon the activities of boys and girls.

Recognizing the weakness of the "life demands" approach to curriculum building, as applied through the analysis of adult activity, the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum⁴ studied the problems of general education from the

³ Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education, No. 35, 1918.

⁴ A Commission of the Progressive Education Association appointed in 1932, charged with the responsibility of examining the fundamental prob-

approach through adolescent needs. The Commission assumed that the processes and goals of education should be relevant to the needs of the learner as he interacts with his social medium. The general principles advanced by the Commission are summarized in its statement of the goals of education when it states that

The purpose of general education is to provide rich and significant experiences in the major aspects of living, so directed as to promote the fullest possible realization of personal potentialities, and the most effective participation in a democratic society.⁵

In this definition of purpose, two broad guiding principles are evident: (1) the educational program should aid the learner in making effective adaptation to his environment in all its major aspects—physical, economic, and social; (2) the educational program should develop in each individual those personal characteristics that will enable him to participate effectively in the preservation and extension of the culture.

Almost without exception, schools of the Eight-Year Study accept these two principles as fundamental assumptions in stating their objectives. As a result, the objectives of the schools show general agreement that the educational program must *meet the needs of adolescents* and seek to *preserve and extend democracy as a way of life*. There are many differences among the various statements of specific objectives. Frequently the differences reflect a lack of agreement on terminology rather than on meaning or intent. Differences in emphasis are also to be found, as is to be expected. In the discussion which follows, the reader should bear in mind

lems of general education at the secondary-school and junior-college levels. Publications of the Commission are: V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, Ruth Kotinsky, *Reorganizing Secondary Education*, 1939; *Science in General Education*, 1938; *Language in General Education*, *Mathematics in General Education*, *The Social Studies in General Education*, 1940—all Progressive Education Association, D. Appleton-Century Co., New York.

⁵ *Mathematics in General Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 43.

the fact that generalizations drawn from thirty or more statements of objectives will not give an accurate account of any one school.

THE SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF GENERAL EDUCATION

The term "general education" is appearing with great frequency in present educational literature, generally without definition, and has a wide variety of meanings. To some people general education is a series of courses required of all students. Thus four years of English, and two or more years of mathematics, two courses in the social studies, physical education for all four years, etc., is the program of general education, with special interests cared for by elective subjects.

To others a general education program consists of a wide offering of vocational courses made available to students after they have demonstrated either unfitness or dislike for the "academic" subjects required for college admission. In other words, general education is the program made available to students of low ability. A third group takes a point of view directly opposed to this, maintaining that a program of general education must rely on wide experience with the traditional classics, with the hundred best books of all time, with the philosophies of past ages. This latter point of view necessitates an acceptance of the theory of "transfer of training," and a feeling of confidence in the ability of any one generation to profit from the detailed study of the experiences of previous generations.

Many schools are organized on the assumption that general education embodies that experience given to students before they start specialization. In some schools this program of general education ends at the eighth-grade level and, beginning with the ninth grade, students are segregated into groups having special curricula—the academic or college preparatory, the commercial, the trade school, the agri-

cultural course, and so on. The assumption that ninth-grade students know accurately their area of special interest is difficult to defend. This concept of general education also places a great deal of confidence in the means available to a school staff for acquiring accurate diagnostic data for guidance purposes.

In a few schools of the Eight-Year Study, "General Education" becomes the name of a special course required of all students. As a rule these courses are of the type known as "core" courses (see Chapter II) dealing with problems of personal adjustment and daily living, or the significant problems of society. These courses are designed to *meet the needs* of adolescents as directly as possible.

Adolescent Needs as the Basis of Objectives

The term *needs* is frequently used to refer to the desires, tensions, drives, wishes, and interests that the individual feels at any given moment. If these needs meet fulfillment, the individual has a feeling of satisfaction. If these needs remain unfulfilled, a feeling of frustration results. This conception of need is very important but is inadequate as the sole basis for the educational program. The concept of needs as desires, tensions, and drives is very closely related to the doctrine of interests followed by many schools during the 1930's. Quite frequently interests are motivated by a feeling of need that is fundamental in nature, but interest may also represent superficial whim and fancy. Such needs, however, do not remain constant. As the individual develops, he is in constant reaction with his environment. The behavior of the individual is affected by his environment, and in this interaction changes are also made in the social scene, for he is a part of the social environment in which he lives.

Another commonly accepted concept of *need* is that society makes certain demands upon the individual. In other

words, the environment not only serves as a medium for the satisfaction of needs, but also creates needs. The teacher's responsibility, then, is to determine the nature of these demands made by society, and to design learning experiences to meet them. Emphasis upon this concept of *need*, however, in isolation from the concept of personal need, is also undesirable. Prescription of activities without reference to the individual's tensions and drives tends to thwart the achievement of satisfaction.

While needs may be chiefly personal or social in *origin* they cannot be considered as completely personal or social in *nature*. Whatever the origin of the need may be, it has both personal and social aspects. In some cases, such as the need for "self-assurance," the personal element is dominant yet it cannot be attained except in situations involving the social environment. Indeed the need for self-assurance would not exist except for the interaction of the individual and the social environment.

If all *needs* have a personal aspect, it follows that they must be specific for each individual. Any list of needs, then, presumed to represent the common needs of adolescents, is in reality a list of generalizations to be used as guides for the study of the particular student or students for whom learning experiences are being planned. The following list is illustrative rather than exhaustive:

The Needs of Adolescents

Physical and mental health

Self-assurance

Assurance of growth toward adult status

A philosophy of life

Wide range of personal interests

Aesthetic appreciations

Intelligent self-direction

Progress toward maturity in social relations

a. with age mates

b. with adults

Wise use of goods and services

Vocational orientation

Vocational competence

The needs contained in this list stem primarily from the application of the principle of *education as adaptation to environment*. Such needs exist as a result of the interaction between the individual in his daily living and the physical and social environment. The identification of the specific needs of the students in a school is the task of those responsible for the planning and administration of the program. The local community, as well as the students themselves, must be studied. It is necessary to determine which of the identified needs requires most urgent attention. Educational diagnosis and prescription—like medical diagnosis and prescription—must be specific, not general.

*The Preservation and Extension of Democracy
as the Basis of Objectives*

In the discussion of needs, the personal-social character of needs was stressed. The nature of the society and the values held by society determine to a great extent the character of the needs that are social in their origin. We cannot determine needs from a study of society and adolescents as they *are* but must take into consideration the values we hold to be most worthwhile. The individual *needs* growth and development, but the direction of that growth is to be determined by the ideals of the culture.

In a democracy, one value is held paramount above all others: regard for the integrity and worth of each individual. The individual possesses importance as an entity. He is unique and not capable of duplication. His optimum devel-

opment is to be encouraged and fostered, not only because it is his inherent right, but also because his maximum development contributes to the common good.

In a democracy, however, the assumption is made that significant personalities can be developed only through the mutual sharing of interests and purposes. The development of the individual as a *goal* is not to be confused with individualistic action as a *method* for its achievement. Unrestrained individualism is inconsistent with democratic values since it will not guarantee others the realization of their potentialities. An ever-widening area of common concerns and interests, and a sharing of responsibilities are essential for the development of personalities to their maximum. The group must accept the furthering of the concerns of its members as its highest value, recognizing that such an end requires the participation of the individual in making choices and determining policies that affect him. Each individual within the group must recognize that individual purposes cannot be considered apart from the concerns and purposes of the group. Individuals must learn that there are responsibilities, as well as advantages, in the sharing of concerns involved in group living.

A second assumption, fundamental to individual development and to the refinement of democracy itself, is reliance upon the free play of intelligence in solving the problems of human concern. Making decisions on the basis of traditional beliefs, blind impulse, or prescribed values uncritically accepted, is inconsistent with this principle. In a democracy, institutions, policies, programs, and accepted values are all constantly in the process of construction. They are not imposed by external authority but are a product of group thinking. They are subject to modification or rejection according to the will of the people. Democracy rests upon faith in the intelligence of the common man. Once this dependence is lost, only dictatorship can result.

The broad values of democracy are succinctly stated by John Dewey in a paragraph which summarizes this discussion:

Democracy . . . means *voluntary choice, based on an intelligence* that is the outcome of *free association and communication with others*. It means a way of living together in which mutual and free consultation rule instead of force, and in which cooperation instead of brutal competition is the law of life; a social order in which all the forces that make for friendship, beauty, and knowledge are cherished in order that *each individual may become what he, and he alone, is capable of becoming*.⁶

In a democracy individual responsibility for participation in defining the values, and in determining the policies, of society is inescapable. Individual responsibility for participation in the achievement of values must also be accepted. All must share in the *work* of democracy as well as in the *planning* of the common good. In order to fulfill these responsibilities the individual needs certain personal characteristics, such as:

Extension and deepening of social concerns

Widening areas of participation in social movements

Recognition of the social importance of his own actions

Creativeness

Social sensitivity

Cooperativeness

Tolerance

Intelligent self-direction

The willingness and ability to base opinion on facts

Readiness to act on the basis of tentative judgment

The exercise of reflective thinking in a consideration of problems of individual and group concern

Techniques of validating authoritative statements

⁶ John Dewey, "Education and Social Change," *The Social Frontier*, May, 1937. The italics are ours.

The characteristics or *needs* in this list are no less personal than are the needs previously listed. But they stem from the principle of *education for the preservation, extension, and refinement* of democracy as a way of life. Such characteristics, however, are not valuable as ends in themselves. Cooperativeness, for example, is to be encouraged only when it is exercised for the common good or for the development of personal interests without harm to others.⁷

THE STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

Analysis of a school before and after the process of formulating objectives often shows little if any change in the school's program. It is difficult in many cases to see any relationship between the statements of purpose and school practices. Many objectives are listed and then apparently forgotten, since the practices of the school either fail to reflect these goals or are in direct contradiction to them. Why does such a condition exist?

One of the causes is a lack of understanding as to the functions of educational objectives. Teachers are faced with the necessity of making important decisions. What subject matter is to be used? What type of procedure shall be followed in the classroom? What is the organization of the school to be? What emphasis is to be given to the subject matter? What shall be tested? These decisions are not only important, but imperative, and it is at this point that the objectives of a school must function. Such decisions cannot profitably be made until purposes have been defined.

⁷ Many of the schools in the Eight-Year Study have been influenced by the philosophy of general education defined by the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum. A summary, therefore, of the philosophical position taken by the schools is a recapitulation of the position of this Commission. The reader who wishes a more detailed treatment of the topics of Adolescent Needs and The Nature of a Democratic Society is referred to the Commission's published reports. See footnote on page 5. Special attention is called to Chapter II, *Science in General Education*, and Chapter II, *Mathematics in General Education. Teacher-Pupil Planning*, by H. H. Giles, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1940, will also be of interest.

Another cause for the failure of objectives to function is to be found in the way they are presented. Two faults in statements of objectives are frequently found. They are either too specific in the scope covered, or they are in the form of generalizations so broadly stated that their meaning is hazy. The reverse should be true. Objectives should be general in the scope covered but analyzed minutely as to their specific meanings. Unless analyzed carefully, objectives will fail to provide aid to teachers in making decisions on such questions as those listed in the previous paragraph.

A statement of purpose such as "to understand the three cases of percentage" is obviously much too narrow in scope to deserve a place on a list of school objectives. It is stated with sufficient specificity to direct choices of subject matter and classroom activities, but its validity as a basic educational objective might be open to challenge. If a school's purposes were to be stated in such narrow terms, the list would represent a complete *course of study* and would assume such proportions that its usefulness would be greatly curtailed. On the other hand, "worthy home membership" represents a possible goal of education that few people would be impelled to challenge. It is certainly so general that few teachers would question its desirability. On the other hand, it is so general that it is almost useless. From such a statement of purpose, very little help can be obtained in finding the answers to questions that face the school staff in planning a program. The purpose represented by an objective may be highly praiseworthy, but if stated in meaningless terms or glittering generalities it will fail to serve its function.

The school objectives must serve as guides to the entire staff. This necessitates the statement of purposes in the form of broad generalizations, specifically analyzed. What should the educational program do to and for students? What are student needs? What are the values of a democratic society? How can these values be served? What are the responsibili-

ties of the school to the individual and to the community? Attempting to find answers to such questions led one school staff to formulate the following four categories of objectives:

1. Physical and mental health
2. Qualities essential for successful participation in a democratic society
3. Skill in reflective thinking
4. Skills in communication

Here we have statements that are sufficiently broad in scope but lack the degree of specificity essential to their functioning. Further analysis and clarification are necessary before a teacher can receive much help in determining the nature of the subject matter to be used, the classroom method to be followed, or the program of evaluation. The analysis of school objectives should be sufficiently specific so that important decisions can be based on the purposes the school seeks to serve, rather than on expediency or tradition.

The Analysis of Educational Objectives

The analysis of the objectives by means of listing the operations involved or the abilities utilized, frequently provides the degree of specificity required for an understanding of the objective. For example, the development of skill in reflective thinking is an objective that is considered important by practically all teachers. In the exercise of reflective thinking, one must be able to

1. define a problem;
2. formulate an hypothesis;
3. collect data;
4. organize data;
5. draw inferences from data;
6. recognize the difference between inferences which represent a conclusion or solution to the problem, inferences which demand a restatement of the hypothe-

sis, or inferences which demand the formulation of another hypothesis;

7. translate conclusions into action.

Several conclusions can now be drawn relative to classroom procedures:

1. Many opportunities must be provided students to deal with problems they feel are significant.
2. Wide sources of information must be utilized. The practice of assignment-recitation, following a single textbook, is not sufficient. Many books, periodicals, newspapers, interviews, excursions, and experiments should be used.
3. Students must share in the responsibility of defining the problem, formulating hypotheses, and in exercising the abilities required in the collection, organization, and interpretation of data.
4. The evaluation program should give some index of pupil-growth along the lines of the seven abilities listed above.
5. The school should discover, wherever possible, arenas of action in which the students may exercise reflective thinking in meaningful, real situations.

Objectives less tangible than "the development of reflective thinking" are more difficult to analyze. For example, growth toward social maturity cannot be analyzed in terms of required abilities or skills involved. However, insight into the meaning of this objective can be obtained by examining illustrations of typical patterns of behavior.

A student who is *socially mature*

A. Feels social responsibility and

- a. Contributes to the general efficiency of the school as an organization
- b. Is on time with regular and special reports on information which the class needs

- c. Participates in discussion
- d. Cares personally for books and equipment used by the class
- e. Serves in any special capacity to which he is elected or appointed

Suggested classroom procedure: Development of *esprit de corps*, setting high standards for the group. (The teacher must live up to them himself and expect others to do so.)

B. Is sensitive to other people

- a. In the class
 - 1. Praises his classmates for good work
 - 2. Finds good qualities in those who are unlike himself

Suggested classroom procedure:

Judicious praise from the teacher

Discovering the unique contributions which each student can make

Having the teacher step in to protect and encourage a submerged member of the class. (This requires tact on the teacher's part.)

Developing a realization and appreciation of individual differences

- b. In the school
 - 1. Speaks proudly of "our department" and the contributions it can make to school life
 - 2. Does not display jealousy or petulance toward teachers and other students
 - 3. Is conscious of the contributions of all departments in the school

Suggested classroom procedure:

Showing respect for the subject-matter contributions of other specialists

Constructive attitude (on the part of the teacher) toward all school activities

- c. In his home
 - 1. Cheerfully does his share of home duties
 - 2. Does not impose on others
 - 3. Makes allowance for the failings of others

Suggested classroom procedure:

Considering backgrounds and problems of parents and children
Suggesting (to parents and children) family sports and recreation

d. In the community

1. Is interested in civic problems (government, housing, etc.)
2. Speaks of working conditions during trips to factories, etc.
3. Makes it a point to talk with others about their work and interests
4. Judges social and economic situations by spiritual as well as material standards

Suggested classroom procedure:

Searching for projects of community concern in which adolescents can participate. (Helpful in this connection, for the teacher, is Paul R. Hanna's *Youth Serves the Community*.)

Making the acquaintance of many people in the community, introducing students to them in the classroom, and in public institutions, factories, utilities plants, etc.

Pointing out the contributions of individuals in the community to our economic, industrial, and social life

e. In the world

1. Has no racial or national antipathies
2. Shows interest in world problems (e. g., prevention of war)

Suggested classroom procedure:

Stressing of the economic interdependence of the world

Speaking of the contributions of scientists and inventors, statesmen and philosophers—living and dead, of all nationalities—to our present knowledge and civilization; finding stimulating readings of this kind

Attempting to develop an ideal of cooperation in improving our social order⁸

The foregoing illustration demonstrates the technique of

⁸ *Science in General Education*, D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1938, p. 483.

analysis in terms of exhibited behavior. In addition to tying together objectives and school work, such analyses serve as guides for the evaluation program. Another illustration is drawn from the statements of the Tower Hill School.

A student who is socially cooperative:

- a. Treats other personalities as intrinsically valuable, and never merely as means to his own ends
- b. Works to make himself useful in a social group
- c. Contributes constructively in group discussions, projects, etc.
- d. Is intelligent rather than blind in his loyalties
- e. Is tolerant of other groups, other races, etc.
- f. Reveals "good sportsmanship" by his actions
- g. Does not allow prejudice to control his attitudes in considering problems of under-privileged groups
- h. Understands and practices the standard codes and mores of his group⁹

Data concerning the progress of each student toward the achievement of the objective are collected by the use of:

1. Scale of Beliefs Tests¹⁰
2. Social Problems Tests¹⁰
3. Oral and written work in social science classes, public speaking classes, etc.
4. Anecdotal records based upon evidence gathered anywhere in the school community
5. Parents' opinions as revealed in regularly scheduled, as well as special conferences with teachers

Data collected from these sources are filed by the students' homeroom teacher. At regular intervals the data concerning each student are summarized by the homeroom teacher in a paragraph report. The summary becomes a part of the "Personality Record" kept for each student. This record is

⁹ The statements dealing with the objective of social cooperation were supplied by Mr. R. G. Sagebeer, chairman of the evaluation committee of the Tower Hill School faculty.

¹⁰ Tests prepared by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study.

checked by at least three other teachers who are familiar with the student, and is revised if necessary before filing the report. The data are also used as bases for conferences with parents, and in making reports to parents.

A typical summary for one student follows:

Cooperation

Certain innate characteristics make Fred a fundamentally cooperative individual in all his relationships. He has a constructive class attitude, is always courteous and attentive to both adults and contemporaries. His class interests carry over into out-of-school experiences. He has developed from a shy, diffident and inarticulate member of the group to active and poised leadership recognized by his contemporaries, as he is frequently their choice for chairmanship in discussion.

His cooperation in school activities (other than in classroom) has grown from a state of passive acceptance of conditions to that of active, analytical, sincere leadership. A slight physical infirmity prevents violent physical activity during cold weather. Fred filled successfully a position of active leadership with athletics and hobby groups of younger boys. He has the ability to carry responsibility and direct the efforts of others as was clearly demonstrated in his chairmanship of an important committee during our Christmas project.

A great deal of confidence is placed in anecdotal records made by teachers. In order for the anecdotes to have the greatest usefulness, they must be pointed toward the specific meaning of the objective accepted by the school.

The importance of having every teacher in the school participating in the analysis of the school objectives cannot be over-emphasized. In a large school it is impractical for all teachers to help analyze each one of the objectives. Time pressures are too great. However, participation in the analysis of one objective will do much to increase any teacher's effectiveness in understanding and using the analyses made

by others. Administrative organizations to facilitate wide teacher participation are described briefly in Chapter VI.

SUMMARY

The objectives of a school are the guide posts that indicate the direction in which the program is pointed. In order to give such direction clearly and forcibly, objectives need careful analysis and specific definition. The participation of the entire staff in defining the nature of the program is essential. A school staff must achieve both unity of purpose and cooperative action for the fulfillment of purpose.

Clearly defined goals give direction for the school's work with students. The development of the individual must take into account both his present needs arising from problems of adaptation to his environment, and the nature and direction of the development of the social environment. These factors are not to be considered in isolation from one another, but as closely interrelated forces in a state of dynamic equilibrium. In a democracy, policies and ideals are subject to examination, criticism, and redefinition at all times. The same policy holds true for a school staff's fundamental purposes. Objectives, once stated, must be subjected to critical examination and re-definition. The process is continuous. Teachers must be serious students of adolescents, of the values of democracy, and of their community. The problems of a school are specific to that school. No school staff can meet its responsibilities by an uncritical adoption of another school's program.

The faculties of each of the schools in the Eight-Year Study have been engaged in the study of these problems in relation to their own schools. Hypotheses have been advanced and programs based on the formulated assumptions. No school staff makes the claim that all the answers are known. Teachers have become increasingly humble as they have

worked. As school programs have grown and developed, teachers have been stimulated and challenged.

In the following chapters, an examination and summary will be made of some of the major developments that have taken place in these schools. The discussions will deal with the applications of objectives to problems of curriculum, classroom practices, characteristics of school life, administration, and teacher growth and development. No attempt will be made to deal with problems of evaluation, as such problems will be discussed in companion volumes written by the Evaluation Staff¹¹ and the staff of the College Follow-up Study.¹² Major emphasis in the treatment of all topics throughout this volume will be on methods of working, rather than on highly detailed descriptions because the authors covet, for all students and all teachers, the benefit, the stimulation, the challenge, the growth that result when pupils, parents, teachers, and administrative officers work cooperatively for common purposes.

¹¹ Vol. III, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*.

¹² Vol. IV, *Did They Succeed in College?*

Chapter II

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE CURRICULUM



THE BASIS FOR CURRICULUM CLASSIFICATION

When the schools were invited to participate in the work of the Commission, they were guaranteed complete autonomy. There was to be no dictation as to the program or method of organization. This promise to the schools has been rigorously observed. As a result, wide variations in curricular organization, subject matter, and administration are to be found.

This variation makes the task of summarization very difficult. There will be many exceptions to the generalizations drawn in this chapter. Nevertheless, generalization will be attempted. The reader of this volume, who also reads the schools' individual reports, should expect to find many deviations in minor details. Types of curriculum development will be described. The report of any one school may or may not be a clear-cut example of any one type. Frequently, a school's report may seem to be a hybrid possessing characteristics of two or more of the types selected for discussion.

The trend in curriculum construction throughout the country is away from state-wide or city-wide formulations toward individual-school curriculum reorganization. This trend is evident in the type of bulletins being prepared by State Departments of Education.¹

¹ See *A Functional Program in the Secondary School*, Bulletin No. 10, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida; *Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction*, Bulletin No. 5, State Department of Education, Jackson, Mississippi; *A Guide for Exploratory Work for Improvement of Instruction*, Bulletin No. 3, State Department of Education, Topeka,

Pre-service training of most teachers has not included extensive training in curriculum building. Most teachers need help. Therefore, classification of curriculum types will be made *on the basis of the techniques employed in curriculum building*. These techniques will be described briefly under three major headings: *Broad-Fields Courses*, *The Core Curriculum*, and *The Reorganization of Subjects*. Excerpts from school reports will be included in order to illustrate the nature of the materials produced by the application of the techniques selected for consideration.

TYPES OF CURRICULUM ORGANIZATIONS: BROAD-FIELDS COURSES

A *broad-fields course* is one in which the subject matter is drawn from a single field or area but cuts across the lines defining specific subjects within a field. The term *survey course* is frequently used to designate this type of organization.

The trend to break down the barriers between various subjects within an area is by no means new. General science, now well established in the conventional curriculum, is a good example. Courses in social science combining history, geography, sociology, civics, and economics are also common. Biology—fusing botany, zoology, and physiology—has found an unchallenged place in the high schools of today. Courses in general mathematics and general language are receiving consideration and investigation but have not yet received widespread acceptance. The survey courses receiving wide experimentation at the college level are part of the trend in this direction. The fairly frequent occurrence of such courses may be an indication of the value of this type of organization in helping students to comprehend the significance of the area in relation to human experience.

Certain assumptions are operating in the formulation of a curriculum along these lines:

1. The organization of the curriculum in sequential courses (e.g., algebra, geometry, trigonometry) within areas or fields, tends toward specialized rather than general education.

2. With a curriculum organized by courses within subject fields, the number of subjects or fields explored by any given student is too limited.

3. Organization of curriculum by subjects in sequential order leads to amassing (or at least covering) large amounts of detailed knowledge, but frequently fails to give the student an understanding of the significance of the field in relation to problems of daily living.

4. Logical, sequential organization of knowledge in any one given area has meaning and significance only to a small number of individuals (potential specialists in the area).

5. The vital problems of living in the home and community should be the basis of the curriculum.

6. Except in the area or areas of the student's special interest, experience should be general rather than detailed.

7. It is unsatisfactory to try to meet the problems of general education and specialization by a single curriculum.

8. Divisions between courses within an area are artificial.

Broad-fields courses are receiving widespread study at the present time. The scope of such courses is determined by two sharply differentiated approaches. In the one approach, scope is determined by an analysis of the content of the field. This technique will be called the *subject-matter analysis* approach. In the second approach, scope is determined by an analysis of the problems involved in daily living. The problems selected for inclusion are limited to those requiring data from a single field for their solution and understanding. The term *social demands* will be used to designate this technique of problem analysis. Since the broad-fields organiza-

tion is found as frequently, if not more frequently, in science than in other areas, the illustrations submitted are drawn from that field.

The Subject-Matter Analysis Approach

The two-year course in physical science given in the eleventh and twelfth years at the University of Chicago High School is outlined briefly as an example of the "subject-field analysis" technique of arriving at the scope of the course.

The course in physical science has been planned to include those aspects of the physical world that seem important for the general education of the individual. It includes elements from physics, chemistry, geology and astronomy, with the major portion of the material from the fields of physics and chemistry . . . It is to be recognized that in such a course time is limited; hence the material selected for study is that which seems best to fit the needs of the student in understanding the physical world and man's relation to it. The treatment of the selected content emphasizes (1) accurate understanding of the principles, (2) scientific methods of thought and procedure, (3) everyday illustrations and applications of scientific principles, and (4) the social significance of scientific knowledge and its applications.²

The outline of the course is as follows:

First Year—Physical Science A

Unit I: The Earth, Our Home

Unit II: The Ever Changing Face of the Earth

Unit III: Motion, a Change Involving Force and Matter

Unit IV: Energy, the Agent of All Change

Unit V: The Molecular Nature of Matter

Unit VI: Chemical Change and the Atomic Constitution of Matter

Unit VII: Electricity at Rest and in Motion

Unit VIII: Electricity and Matter

² *Science Instruction in Elementary and High School Grades*, by members of the faculty of the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1939.

Second Year—Physical Science B

Unit I: The Chemical Reaction

Unit II: The Reactions of Ions in Solution

Unit III: Atomic Structure and Chemical Behavior

Unit IV: Metals and Non-metals

Unit V: Carbon, the Element of Life

Unit VI: The History of the Earth

Unit VII: The Earth and Its Neighbors

Unit VIII: Waves as Carriers of Energy

Unit IX: Radiation and the Nature of Stars³

Although the staff of the school uses the term “need” in defining its criteria for the determination of the scope of the course, the term is used in a much more limited sense than is described in Chapter I. The assumption is made that there are certain facts, principles, and concepts that everyone “needs to know.” Two other needs are recognized: (1) the need for the understanding of, and some skill in the use of, the scientific method and (2) the need for understanding the social significance of science. What each student “needs to know” is the criteria applied for determining the scope of the course. The needs for understanding scientific method and the social significance of science are to be met through the teaching emphasis applied to the unit topics selected.

At least tacitly, if not openly, three assumptions must be accepted in this approach: first, that teachers can accurately predict the knowledge needs of students; second, that sufficient motivation can be supplied so that effective learning will take place; and third, that these facts, principles, and concepts will be retained until needed.

Critics of such an organization of material are unwilling to accept these assumptions. They insist that the teaching emphasis, in courses so designed, is on subject matter rather than on student development, and that teachers who are trained as specialists in their field find it difficult within such

³ *Ibid.*, Chap. XII.

an organization to refrain from treating the students as embryo specialists. Criticism is also made that such courses have no clearly defined thread of organization, that sequence is haphazard and determined arbitrarily, and that no *union* of subjects really exists. To many people the inclusion of a unit from astronomy, followed by units from geology, physics, and chemistry, and returning to astronomy or geology, does not constitute a breakdown of subject boundary lines.

On the other hand, exponents of this type of organization insist that students obtain a good grasp of the scope of the field, and that they acquire control over the area adequate for purposes of general application and use. Such courses are not designed to give professional competency within the field. Teachers, following this plan, believe that the interrelationships among the specialized areas of the field are brought out more clearly than in special-course organizations such as astronomy, geology, physics, and chemistry. In answer to the criticism of a lack of organization, the claim is made that the validating criterion of understanding the physical world is sufficient, and that a thread of organization is a thread, not a rope, as is likely to be the case in the teaching of physics, chemistry, or any other specialized field.

The Social-Demands Approach

The *social-demands* approach to curriculum organization is illustrated by the physical science course at the eleventh-grade level in Los Angeles. The committee of teachers agreed that problems of concern to the area of Southern California should serve as the point of departure for classroom activities. They also accepted the assumption that the objectives of science education would be most effectively achieved by the problem-solving approach applied to the class activities. Believing that the definition of the problem is an integral and essential step in this process, they have not defined the problems in their curriculum outline.

The course was outlined under "Areas of Investigation," within each of which were many problems. The areas selected were: Water, The Earth, The Atmosphere, Astronomy, Fuel, Light, Transportation, Communication, Materials and Processes, and Household Equipment.

Each area was then explored and analyzed by the committee in such a way that teachers received guidance and suggestions on the scope, but no dictation as to the problems to be considered or the sequence to be followed. Wide variations from class to class were encouraged by urging the adoption of the pupil-teacher planning of scope and sequence within the limits defined by the ten areas. Excerpts from the committee's analysis of one of the areas are reproduced in order to show the nature of the aid given to teachers.

Area I: Water

1. Problems dealing with:

1. Our water supply
2. The Mono Basin Project
3. The Metropolitan Water District
4. The building of Boulder Dam
5. Hydro-electric developments
6. Water purification
7. Water softening
8. Water as a chemical compound
9. Water as a geological agent
10. Ground water
11. Conservation of water sheds
12. Irrigation

2. Major understandings:

1. Water supply has been and continues to be an important problem of all major civilizations.
2. Constant treatment and care are necessary to insure the purity of metropolitan water supplies.
3. Modern water projects demand large scale cooperation in planning, in construction, and in financing.

4. In Southern California, electricity as a by-product of water supply, is one of our chief sources of energy.
5. The nature of the physical properties of water makes it particularly well adapted to the use of man in energy conversions.
6. Water is an important chemical re-agent.
3. Suggested student activities:
 1. Make model and demonstrate artesian well—see various science texts for construction
 2. Amphibian plane—boys can bring models—see magazines—correspond with manufacturers
 3. Make model trap for bath tub, sink, etc.—bend glass tube to correspond to trap that prevents escape of sewer gas, an inverted siphon
 4. Make display of boat models, pictures, etc. Weigh a model boat by displacement of water
 5. Construct bird bath
 6. Demonstrate water cooler—the olla (porous clay jar), cooling by evaporation
 7. Test carbonated water—test gas liberated with lime water—test for Carbon Dioxide
 8. Demonstrate properties of water
 - a. Action of water on metals
 - b. Action of water on oxides
 - c. Water of crystallization(Use an up-to-date science text for reference) etc.(From 50 to 70 suggested activities in each problem area).⁴

Other teacher aids are included in the *Guide*. References for both teacher and pupil are provided under the general headings: A. Books and Pamphlets, B. Periodicals, and C. Visual Aids. These inventories of source materials are made for local use, and include only those materials readily available within the locality.

The following quotation from the Los Angeles outline

⁴ *Advanced Physical Science, A Teachers' Guide*, Los Angeles City Schools, School Publication No. 337.

states its point of view relative to subject matter and the objectives of the course.

In discussing a course such as the one herein described, one of the first questions that arises is that of subject-matter content. In order to gain perspective on this question it is perhaps desirable to review briefly the present situation in our science curriculum. A large proportion of the students elect to take only one upper grade laboratory science course which may be chemistry, physics, physiology, or in some cases, biology. With the exception of a small amount of overlapping in chemistry and physics, and perhaps some in biology and physiology, we observe four distinct and different bodies of subject matter, the study of any one of which satisfies present requirements.

According to our present practice we may draw the conclusion that there is no inviolable body of subject matter that every student is required to study to meet graduation requirements. If we accept this as sound we must come to the conclusion that theoretically the equivalence of these courses is not based on specific indispensable subject matter but on certain outcomes common to all the courses mentioned.⁵

In this course, selection of subject matter within the fields of physical science is governed by the following principles:

1. The content should be of such a nature as to foster the development of the desired outcomes
2. It should include, in so far as possible, those elements of science which are considered to be of greatest significance to the individual
3. The teacher should have freedom to select or modify subject matter to meet the demands of the particular teaching situation . . .

The desired outcomes of the course are skills in:

1. Application of scientific methods of problem solving
2. Critical use of all available sources of information
3. Quantitative thinking
4. Planning and carrying through independent projects

⁵ *Ibid.*

5. Careful handling and manipulating of apparatus and materials

Habits of:

1. Critical thinking. Drawing conclusions in accordance with all available data
2. Searching for true cause and effect relationships
3. Intellectual honesty
4. Self-reliance and resourcefulness
5. Accuracy and neatness in all operations

Ability:

1. To recognize and clarify a problem
2. To evaluate authenticity of information
3. To behave intelligently as a consumer
4. To cooperate in the solution of group problems
5. To recognize common relationships
6. To carry on independent study according to current need

Attitudes:

1. Openmindedness
2. Cooperation
3. Inquiring mind
4. Social concern
5. Respect for the opinions of others
6. Respect for property

Understanding and appreciation of:

1. Science as a method of searching for truth as well as a body of organized and tested knowledge
2. The tentative nature of much scientific knowledge
3. The nature of a scientific law as a description or interpretation of a natural truth
4. True cause and effect relationships as opposed to magic and superstition
5. The importance of our physical environment in our daily lives
6. Our natural resources and the importance of their conservation
7. The social and economic implications of scientific progress

8. Our scientific heritage and the opportunities of contributing to it, including an awareness of many of the unsolved problems of science
9. The several classifications into which the sciences are grouped; the advantages and limitations of such classifications.⁶

Critics of this plan of organization take the position that *essential* control over an area of knowledge is not achieved by the student. However, the Los Angeles committee assumes that control over the area is of less importance than are the desired outcomes as stated above. Much of the difference of opinion relative to *control* is due to differing concepts of the meaning of the word. The subject-matter group wishes to assure reasonably complete coverage, while the problems-solving group insists that adequate control means (1) knowledge of the sources of information and (2) techniques of acquiring and using needed information from source materials.

Many serious and conscientious teachers level criticism at both of the approaches outlined and illustrated in the previous pages. These teachers challenge the basic assumptions of the broad-fields organization. The chief criticism of the broad-fields approach is that vigorous mental discipline is either impossible, or at least difficult, to achieve under such organization. At present there is a need for carefully controlled experimentation which would aid in establishing the basic assumptions as either valid or invalid. This suggests a fertile field for significant research.

THE CORE CURRICULUM, BASED ON ADULT NEEDS OR SOCIAL DEMANDS

The term "core curriculum" is applied to a wide variety of courses or practices to be found in schools at present. In some schools the term is used to designate the subjects re-

⁶ *Ibid.*

quired of all students. For example, a three-year sequence in English, two years of social studies (any 2 of 4 to 6 electives), one year of mathematics (any 1 of 3 electives), one year of science (any 1 of 3 electives), 2 periods per week for four years in physical education, is referred to as the "core" of the curriculum in one school simply because these courses are required of all students. This use of the term will not be considered in this chapter, but attention will be confined to types of organization, or approaches to curriculum building, in which the sharp lines between the subject fields disappear entirely or become blurred almost to the point of extinction. The unit plan of study, proving highly successful at the elementary level, has also been used extensively at the secondary level. The lead in this direction was taken by Morrison, Thayer, and others long before the present experimental study started. Teachers attempting to follow through the assumption that "the basis of the curriculum is to be found in the problems of living" found it difficult, if not impossible, to stay within the boundaries defined by the subject-centered curriculum.

Early attempts to design curricula dealing with the problems of living have given rise to many new terms found in present educational literature. *Unified studies*, *integrated courses*, *stem courses*, *core courses*, *fused courses*, *social-living courses*, and *basic courses* are a few of the terms applied to such organizations of teaching materials.

Certain common elements are found upon examining the organization and administration of these core courses. First, they cut across subject-matter lines; second, they frequently call for cooperative planning and teaching; third, they call for exploration of a wide range of relationships; fourth, they provide for experiences valid for large groups; fifth, they deal with subject matter which does not require extended drill in specific skills (such as the operations involved in mathematics, or the writing of chemical equations); sixth,

they use larger blocks of time than a single period; and seventh, they use a wide range of source materials, techniques of gathering information, and classroom activities.

The Unified-Studies Approach

One of the earliest core courses to appear is best described by the term "unified studies." In such a course, two or more fields are fused or united because they seem to have many *integrating or correlating foci*.

The most frequently united areas were the social studies and English. Almost without exception, chronological history provided the sequence of the courses, the scope being enlarged to include the study of the literature of the particular historical period. This practice presented many difficulties. English teachers were handicapped by being required to confine their efforts to a single period of history. Frequently the literature of the period did not fit the maturity level of the students. A tenth-grade class might be faced with *Chaucer* while a twelfth-grade group would find *Huckleberry Finn* in the literature of the period under consideration. The illustration is extreme but the generalization illustrated is valid. In actual practice, complete separation of the subject fields was frequently found. The history involved during a certain unit might require a period of five or six weeks for satisfactory consideration, whereas the literature of the same historical period could be covered in a fraction of the time. In such a case, the class marked time in the field of English, using the time for drill in grammar or for carrying on some other activity divorced from the social studies subject matter.

Another union receiving experimentation was a course involving mathematics and science. In most of these courses the science provided the organizing sequence. This presented many difficulties in the mathematics instruction. The amount of mathematics required for the science work was

very limited. Frequently a mathematical skill was needed which necessitated taking large blocks of class time for drill on operations. This led to loss of interest in the science project. Here again, as in social studies-English fusions, the amount of time needed in one field far exceeded the time that could be profitably used in the other field.

In some other mathematics-science fusions, mathematics was used as the organizing field, or as the area defining the sequence. Here, too, difficulties arose. The science subject matter was either illogical in its presentation to the student, or, at best, the sequence was awkward and unwieldy. The necessity for large blocks of time devoted to drill activities destroyed interest and continuity in science activities. It was difficult to devise satisfactory criteria for the selection of subject matter.

After two or three years of experimentation, most schools felt that the attempt to *put subjects together* was not a satisfactory procedure. When the scope and sequence of a fused course are determined by the systematic organization of one of the fused fields, the subject matter is frequently irrelevant to, or in direct conflict with, the purposes of the core course.⁷ These early attempts at unification were not all lost motion, however, since they have contributed some valuable leads to further experimentation. For example, when it was proved fairly conclusively that no one subject area can be used effectively as an organizing medium for uniting subjects, teachers were forced to search for other organizing media. This search was undertaken not to prove the feasibility of fusion, but to try again to overcome the undesirability of the piece-meal diet of the subject organization.

⁷ For a more detailed account of the unsatisfactory features of such fusions, the reader is referred to: The Report of the Des Moines Experimental Program at Roosevelt High School, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*; the Denver Program, Theodore D. Rice, *Social Education*, April, 1938; The Friends' Central Program, Folwell Scull and Robert Cadigan, *Social Education*, April, 1938.

The trend toward fusion has been so striking that the Curriculum Staff is tempted to draw the generalization that the unified-studies approach is a necessary first step in moving toward a core curriculum. However, in the hope that such a first step may be omitted, other approaches to the building of core curricula will receive more complete treatment in this volume than has been given to the unified studies.

The Cultural-Epoch Approach

The core program of the Horace Mann School, New York, illustrates a somewhat broader unification than is found in the unified-studies approach. Sequence is determined by chronology, and the skeleton outline of scope is drawn from the field of history. But it is much broader than a social studies-English fusion because units are organized as studies of various cultures. Thus, ancient Greece may be studied for its art, science, music, literature, social patterns, political life, and economic structure. This type of approach will be designated as the *cultural-epoch approach*.

Such courses are generally planned cooperatively and, in many cases, cooperatively taught. In other schools, a single teacher is responsible for the teaching, and additional teachers who, possessing special competencies, are brought in to direct a part of the work. For example, an art teacher might assume the responsibility for working with the class in studying the art of the cultural epoch.

The core program of the Horace Mann School is organized under two General Themes as follows:

1. The Story of Man through the Ages
 - Grade 7. From beginning through ancient period
 - Grade 8. To the discovery of America
 - Grade 9. From the discovery of America to life in the modern world

2. Modern Civilizations and Cultures

Grade 10. American civilization and culture

Grade 11. Other modern civilization and culture

Grade 12. Modern problems and issues in America

The staff of the school proposed to broaden the scope of the program of the Junior High School by providing for: continuity of experience from the Elementary School to the Junior High School through the extension of the study of broad units of work; establishment of relationships among the various subjects which would aid in contributing to a more complete picture of society; organization of the school day into a related whole; determination of areas of study applicable to the interests and needs of adolescent girls; selection of a program to serve as a basis for the Senior High School.⁸

The central theme was not to be regarded as merely the story of man's culture but rather as material for accomplishing the following:

show how the steps in the progress or retardation in the life of man have affected the life and problems contemporary with the child;

further the child's conception of himself as an individual engaged in a complete social activity;

develop the child's ability to make valid generalizations and deductions, and to recognize significant relationships through an understanding of the past;

develop social, spiritual, and political ideals which result in action commensurate with the child's ability and opportunity;

emphasize the elements of permanence in a society, as well as the elements of change.⁹

⁸ Horace Mann School, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

⁹ *Ibid.*

Approximately half of the school day is set aside for this program in the junior high school under the direction of a coordinating (homeroom) teacher. Working in close cooperation with the coordinating teacher are teachers of fine arts, science, industrial and household arts, mathematics, languages, and music. The function of these cooperating teachers is to clarify the contributions of their specific areas to the progress of man.

An element of pupil-teacher planning comes into the picture by reaching decisions about the problems to be studied by the class under the direction and leadership of the coordinating teacher. Conferences are then held with the cooperating teachers during which the problems are further refined and generally delimited in scope.

The immediate approach is based on specific interests revealed by the students, such as: safeguarding health, earning a living, recreational activities, dealing with human relationships. The teachers propose in this way to aid the students in drawing the generalization that many problems confronting modern society have been *recurrent* and *persistent* throughout man's life.

The three-year sequence of the coordinated program in the senior high school is quite clearly defined by the General Theme and by the topics listed for each of the three years' activities. In the study of American culture, the activities engaged in are wide and comprehensive, dealing with American life as a whole. The content of the course varies considerably from year to year because pupil participation in planning is used extensively. The major emphasis is on the development of the characteristic ideas and ideals that have motivated and shaped American thinking. American literature is used extensively, but there is less use of other subject fields than in the junior high school program. Some of the major topics studied are:

The presidential election (Class of 1936)

Housing

Seeking a new life in a new land

Religious freedom

The future of the American way of life

Two periods a week are set aside for the pursuit of special interests. It is during this period that areas other than social studies and English make their greatest contribution. For example, one group of students constructed a model New England village, a second group wrote and produced a play dealing with the modern farm problem, and a third group produced a mural showing the development of the Bill of Rights.

It is interesting to note that while chronology has functioned in determining the sequence of the year-by-year activities, chronology does not function in the sequence of activities within the limits set for a year's consideration. The study of American culture is most generally pursued by means of regional studies in order to gain an understanding of the culture of the region and of the similarities and differences of each region compared with others.

In the study of cultures other than American, wide latitude is given to the teaching staff and class. Each year four different cultures are studied, the selection being based on class interest, predictions of those cultures having probable significance to America in the near future, and cultures having ideologies differing from those of the United States. Russia, Germany, China, Italy, Great Britain, and France have all been studied by one or more groups. The growth of democracy, nationalism, imperialism, and fascism is the controlling theme for the year's work. The status of the individual, in each of the cultures, is clearly brought out. General areas such as government, economics, sociology, and national policy are compared and contrasted.

The final year is devoted to a study of American problems of significance today and of probable importance in the world of tomorrow. Less use is made of literature during this year than in the preceding year. There is a corresponding increase in the use of mathematics and science, inasmuch as a study of current problems has many quantitative and technical aspects. The problems considered by a given group are not rigidly predetermined but are decided upon by each group. Problems dealing with distribution, unemployment, taxation, natural resources, and the economic position of the farmer have been considered by one or more groups. Wide use is made of current news, controversial literature, and visual aids.

The general criticism of this type of course is that too much attention is given to the past. Even though the teachers are sensitive to the need of focusing upon present-day problems, all too frequently the orientation is in terms of the past. This is much more likely to occur during the first three years than during the senior program. The work of the earlier years is often merely a preparation of so-called *background* for the work of later years. As one student has so aptly stated it, "We spend so much time getting background that we never have time to see the foreground."

The cultural-epoch approach to curriculum building, especially in the example given, illustrates the "scope and sequence" technique of validating the curriculum. The advantages and disadvantages of this plan are discussed in Chapter III.

The Social-Demands Approach

A third type of core curriculum goes far beyond the unification of subject fields or the study of cultural epochs. Subject matter is validated on the basis of its contribution to an understanding and solution of the problems of living. The term *social demands* is an apt description of the subject

matter used, and the pattern of organization. Although such a course is not to be found in any of the schools participating in the Study, it deserves at least brief discussion in this chapter for two reasons: first, such courses are receiving widespread and serious experimentation in many schools not included in the Study and second, the social demands are used by many of the Thirty Schools in planning core courses through the *adolescent-needs* approach (see the next section of this chapter).

One of the leading exponents of the social-demands approach to curriculum reorganization is Dr. Hollis L. Caswell. This philosophy has influenced several state-wide programs in this direction. Curriculum reorganizations in Mississippi, Virginia, and Kansas, although differing in detail, all have the central organizing theme of social demands. The Mississippi program will be very briefly outlined to illustrate the procedures employed and the curricula thus developed.¹⁰

In an adequate program of education the school should provide

1. for the development of social understanding and understanding of the physical environment;
2. special opportunities for developing individual interests and aptitudes;
3. special opportunities to engage in creative, aesthetic, and recreational activities;
4. opportunities for the mastery of basic skills and techniques.

To provide for the functions outlined above, one-half the school day is set aside for the core curriculum devoted to the development of an understanding of the physical and social environment. The subject matter is drawn from many subject fields and is organized around problems of life that are

¹⁰ The material submitted is abstracted from *The Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction*, Bulletin No. 5, *op. cit.*

functional in nature. With increased maturity, an increasing emphasis is given to problems drawing heavily on the social studies and science fields. Each problem accepted must require knowledge of the present and understanding of the past. A consideration of the possibilities of the future is included in the study of the problem. By a synthesis of 38 classifications of the problems and activities of man, nine organizing centers are selected. A list of these nine centers of organization and the scope of each follows:

Areas of Human Activity and Problems of Life

1. Protecting Life and Health
(Medical science, life, health, conservation, mental health, safety, protection against disease, accidents, fears)
2. Getting a Living
(Vocations, maintenance, production, distribution, consumption, economy, labor, occupation, industry, unemployment, work, capital, wealth, income)
3. Making a Home
(Parental responsibilities, practical and domestic activities, family, childhood and youth, biological heritage, personal and household regimen, child rearing, private property, conservation of property, sex, marriage, courtship and love, eugenics, housing, food, clothing, "we consumers," parent education, position of women)
4. Expressing Religious Impulses
(Morality, religious organization, the church, religious practices, philosophy of life)
5. Satisfying the Desire for Beauty
(Culture, fine arts, mythology, aesthetics, literature, language arts, charm and good manners)
6. Securing Education
(Mental efficiency, culture, self-improvement, childhood and youth, the school, the press, cinema, the radio, integration of the individual, intellectual vision, how to study,

reflective thinking and capacity for work, prevailing ideals, "folkways" and "mores")

7. Cooperating in Social and Civic Action

(International relations, social relationships, citizenship, government, justice, crime and punishment, social and public welfare work, taxation, law, ameliorative institutions, social attitudes, the community, democracy, farm relief, social protection, war, conservation of property, extension of freedom, the constitution, legislation, population, people, social intercommunication)

8. Engaging in Recreation

(Leisure, enjoyable physical and mental activity)

9. Improving Material Conditions

(Communication and transportation, physical heritage, invention, exploration, discoveries, technological development, science, material traits, scientific knowledge, conservation of material resources, nature, men and machines, power, steel, mastery of material circumstances, adventure and risk, plants and animals, climate, natural wealth, standards of living).

The sequence of the core curriculum is defined by major themes for each of the main divisions of the school, with a minor theme providing organization for each year's work. The major themes, with their grade allocations, are:

Lower Elementary Grades: Life in Home, School, and Community

Upper Elementary Grades: Relation of Life to the Physical and Social Environment

Junior High School Grades: Adjusting to and Using the Physical and Social Environment

Senior High School Grades: Controlling and Improving the Physical and Social Environment.

It is to be noted that the teachers who provide such major themes for students accept the assumptions relative to prediction, motivation, and retention. However, in departing from subject-matter or chronological organization, a distinct contribution may have been made. Careful appraisal of experimental work of social-demands courses may reveal that teachers can overcome the dangers inherent in accepting these three assumptions.

THE CORE CURRICULUM, BASED ON ADOLESCENT NEEDS

The reports of the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum,¹¹ and the "Concerns of Adolescents"¹² listed by the Commission on Human Relations, have greatly influenced a number of schools in their attempts to build a core curriculum. Drawing heavily from the formulations of adolescent needs as defined in *Science in General Education*¹³ and the "Concerns of Adolescents," these schools sought to plan their curricula around the problems arising from the personal-social interactions of the individual in the various aspects of living. Using the categories of *personal living*, *immediate personal-social relationships*, *social-civic relationships*, and *economic relationships*,¹⁴ the schools attempted to determine basic adolescent needs in a given situation, and to design units of study to meet these needs in such a way as to develop the *characteristics of personality* needed for effective functioning in a democratic society. This may be called the *adolescent-needs* approach to core-course organization.

Who Should Do the Planning?

Believing that the *characteristics of personality* needed for effective participation in a democratic society can be devel-

¹¹ See footnote, p. 5.

¹² Reproduced in the Appendix.

¹³ *Science in General Education*, *op. cit.*, Chap. II.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*

oped only through the practice of democratic procedures, the staffs designing such core courses make certain that these are characterized by wide participation of the students in planning both the scope and the sequence of the curriculum. The activities of a class follow no fixed or internally logical sequence, such as would be defined by a textbook or course of study. This does not mean that the activities have no logical organization, but that the procedure of problem-solving and an application of intelligence form the basis on which logic is achieved.

The staff of the Ohio State University School takes the position that the process of teacher-pupil planning includes

1. preliminary survey of pupils' background and needs;
2. setting up of criteria for choice of a worth-while group experience;
3. examination of a range of worth-while group experiences in the light of a criteria set-up;
4. cooperative choice of the best possible experience, with teachers responsible for so directing the activity as to determine whether choice fits into needs of pupil and the culture;
5. caring for the rights of the minority;
6. actual division of labor and working out of experience;
7. revision of the group's working plan as needs dictate;
8. evaluation of the group's work upon completion of the experience or unit; and
9. transitions into other units by a technique similar to that above mentioned.¹⁵

A literal interpretation of the Ohio State University School procedure would indicate that it is relatively impossible to determine the program for a given group of students before the class begins its work. However, in actual practice in all the schools, some preliminary planning is done. At the University School, for example, a very complete record of each

¹⁵ Ohio State University School, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

class' activities is kept. This record is available to the teachers for the preliminary planning necessary before meeting the class. The survey of the background of the pupils is a very important step in the process. It is made first by the teacher or teachers involved, and includes a consideration of the curricular experience of previous years; the characteristics of the group as a whole; the specific strengths and weaknesses of each individual student; the economic, social, and cultural background of the parent group; and any other factors that seem important. Most of this information is to be found in the cumulative record of the class. This inventory is then repeated, with the class as active participants, when planning with the group is undertaken.

Some of the schools (Denver, Tulsa, Des Moines, Altoona) have attempted a solution by trying to determine needs and interests that seem to be important and relatively specific at various grade levels, and then determining scope by the selection of problem areas assigned to various grade levels. Distinction is made between a problem area and a problem. A *problem* represents a specific concern or interest of a class or individual student, whereas a *problem area* is more inclusive and includes many specific problems. For example, "Living in the Home" is a problem area within which a class might explore such problems as: How can I make the most of the home I live in? What is the relation between poor housing and crime? How can a home be made attractive on a limited budget? What are the advantages and disadvantages of home ownership as compared with rental? What proportion of income should be allocated to housing? What provisions should be made for safety, sanitation, and health in the home? What should be the contents of the home medicine cabinet?

The difficulty in rigidly defining the curriculum in advance is a natural outcome following the attempt to meet student needs and interests. The schools vary greatly in the nature

of their physical, social, racial, and economic environment and background. Classes within a school will show wide varieties of needs, concerns, and interests. The selection of the specific problem is therefore a task involving the cooperative effort of pupil and teacher. The preliminary planning found to be essential by many teachers (in order for them to have a feeling of professional security, a sense of direction, and source materials at hand) can be done only in terms of large areas.

A course designed on a problems' basis will of necessity cut across many subject lines. Most problems of personal or group concern—problems in human relations and daily living—do not usually fall into categorically defined subject areas. (Where they do draw predominantly on a single area, they are best considered in a broad-fields course, previously described.) In the preliminary (teacher) planning, therefore, wide participation of the school staff is desirable if not essential. If a core class studies some local problems of transportation, sanitation, traffic management, safety or conservation, such units should not be duplicated in other courses, such as social studies, science, home economics, etc. It is also important that the contributions of specialists in many areas be utilized in the preliminary planning.

Such preliminary planning may seem to be subject to the same criticism as other types of curriculum organization in which subject matter is selected and outlined before the class begins its work. It certainly places limitations on student participation in the making of choices. However, by selecting very broad problem areas, such as Living in the Home, Home and Family Life, Earning a Living, Recreation Facilities of the Community, or Living Together in a Community, a great deal of latitude remains for student choice, and a great responsibility for student planning.

It may be possible that the emerging core course will be administered without the limiting factor of preliminary de-

termination of scope. At the present time, the maximum amount of student choice and responsibility is not realized in many schools. Yet, the history of the development of the core courses based on adolescent needs, shows that widening the areas of pupil participation is both practicable and profitable.¹⁶

The question, Who should do the planning? is actually much less important than it seems to be. The real question to be answered in the *adolescent-needs* approach to curriculum building is: to what degree does the planned course actually meet needs? To many people the term "teacher-pupil planning" means teacher planning and then, under skillful direction, the pupils voting to do what the teacher has previously planned. To others, the term means teacher abdication and the pupils making all decisions without careful leadership. This latter concept of teacher-pupil planning frequently results in curricula based on interests rather than on needs. If these interests are superficial and transitory instead of indicative of genuine needs, obviously the school experience may often be trivial and unimportant. The answer to the question, Who should do the planning? is probably to be found in the middle ground between the two extremes. Since the process of planning has great educational value, the wider the students' participation, the greater will be the benefits to them.

Criteria for the Selection of Core Units

While the school's objectives function as guides in curriculum formulation, additional criteria are needed in planning core courses. This situation arises from the fact that in all of the Thirty Schools the core program is supplemented by elective courses. What problems can be considered most effectively in the core program? What problems or subject

¹⁶ For an interesting account of the historical development of the core course in a school, see Des Moines Schools, *Ibid.*

matter should be considered in elective courses? Which of the objectives of a school should be sought through the core program, through elective courses, through classroom procedures, through school organization?

A group of teachers at the Rocky Mountain Workshop, Denver, under the leadership of Dr. H. B. Alberty, studied the problem of selection of core activities. They recommend that the core program include only those units, activities, or problem areas which

1. are common to large groups of pupils, if not to all;
2. are persistent or recurring in human experience, or are related to, or illustrative of, such problems (for example, a bond issue for the construction of a local sewage disposal plant may illustrate the persistent problem of sanitation);
3. are not likely to be handled well by any of the traditional subjects (as, family relationships);
4. require, or would profit from, cooperative planning, teaching, and learning;
5. call for exploration in several areas of experience (as, health in biology, recreation, the home, sex, care of children, public health, health hazards in industry, the consumer, safety, etc.);
6. require orientation in a wide range of relationships and implications for their significance to become apparent (for example, the corporation—as related to mass production, advertising, absentee ownership, labor problems, propaganda, war, imperialism, pressure groups, etc.);
7. require consideration of various points of view in addition to factual data (as, race relations);
8. require larger blocks of time than conventional periods (as, community study and participation);
9. call for relatively continuous experience rather than a unit course (for example, the arts are not strictly “problems” but kinds of experience which should be included in the core curriculum);
10. extend the application of such objectives as techniques of thinking, work habits, study skills, social sensitivity, creative-

ness, etc., over a wider range of experience than the traditional subjects;

11. require a minimum of specialized laboratory equipment;
12. do not require extended drill in specific skills (as, taking three months off for drill in typing or percentage or cabinet-making);
13. do not require sudden extension or drastic modifications of present levels or work habits and study skills (as, a sudden shift from lesson learning to complete responsibility).¹⁷

Analytical Devices for Suggesting Core Activities

The foregoing criteria have been widely used, and prove effective in guiding teacher choices. Useful as they are, however, for passing judgment on proposed problem areas, they offer little or no help in suggesting possible fruitful areas of investigation. Several analytical devices that have been used fairly extensively (notably in Des Moines, Denver, Tulsa, and Altoona) were found to be helpful. The analysis made under the leadership of Dr. O. I. Frederick at the University of Mississippi, reproduced under the discussion of the social-demands approach (pp. 42-43), has been widely used.

The Denver group, referred to above, listed suggestions for core activities using the following four "Basic Relationships of Living" as categories for classification and analysis:

I. Personal Living

A. Personal Health (Physical and Mental)

Heredity, Native Endowments, Habits, Learning, Intelligence, Normal Variability, Eugenics, Diet, Drugs, Developing Personality Traits, etc.

B. Man and Nature

Man in relation to Lower Animals, Organic Evolution, Cosmology, Religion, Ethics, Anthropology, Social Philosophy, Relativity of Truth, Operational Thinking.

¹⁷ Taken from a mimeographed bulletin prepared at the Rocky Mountain Workshop, 1938. Out of print.

- C. Man's Realization of Self Through Aesthetic Appreciations, Art, Music, Drama, Literature.

II. Immediate Personal-Social Relationships

A. The Family in Civilization

Problems of Individual Adjustment, Social Relations, Economic Problems, Budgeting, Standards of Living, Improvement of Home Life, Food, Clothing, Nutrition.

B. Human Relations

Growth and Development, Sex, Mating, Dating, Petting, Problems of Individual Adjustment, Social Relations, ships.

C. Living in the School

Adjustment to School Life, Participation, Mating Choices, Social Responsibility, Parties, Attitudes Toward Teachers, Care of Building and Grounds, Participation in Curriculum Planning, Student Government, etc.

III. Social Civic Relationships

A. The Community

Health, Housing, Transportation, Communication, Taxation, Government, Schools, Recreation, Beautification, Sharing of Interests, Participation in Improving Community Life, Changing Concept of the Community.

B. Changing Conceptions of Government

Government and Human Welfare, Protection of Individual against Exploitation.

C. Types of Social and Political Organizations

Democracy, Fascism, Communism, etc. Effects upon Human Welfare.

D. Getting Along with Other Races and Nations

Internationalism, War, Trade Barriers, League of Nations, Courts of International Justice, Treatment of the Negro, Oriental, and the Indian, Naturalization, Citizenship, etc.

IV. Economic Relationships

A. Conflicting Economic Systems

Capitalism, Communism, Socialism, Trade Unionism, Consumer Cooperatives.

B. Impact of Technology Upon Living

Machine Age Production, Communication, Transportation, Distribution of Goods, From Scarcity to Abundance —“The American Dream,” Possibilities of Improving Living in a Machine Civilization.

C. Vocational Orientation

Study of Occupations, Professions, Social Responsibilities, Culture Through Vocation.

D. Consumer Problems

Advertising, Installment Buying, Banking, Child Labor, Sweatshops, Consumer Cooperatives, Laboratory Testing.¹⁸

If the preliminary planning should stop with defining categories such as those listed above, an impossible load is placed on the shoulders of the teacher charged with the responsibilities of teaching a core course. Additional help is required. What source materials can be used profitably? How can they be made available? What activities can be utilized profitably? How can the significance of an activity be determined? These questions and many others must be answered satisfactorily by the teacher.

The Preparation of Source Units

A device known as the *source unit* has proved effective in giving some material aid to teachers. Rather than a definition of the term *source unit*, the functions of such a unit will be given. These functions are

1. to define the student need or needs to be met.
2. to set forth the principal values, or characteristics, which the teacher should keep in mind in planning experiences designed to meet the needs.
3. to state the problems, issues, and basic concepts or generalizations involved.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

Additional suggestions are given in the Appendix, in the description of the core program in Denver high schools.

4. to suggest a large number of possible individual and group activities which might prove to be helpful.
5. to provide suitable annotated reference materials for students.
6. to suggest appropriate equipment, visual aids, and the like.
7. to provide suitable reference and other material for the use of the teacher.
8. to suggest a wide variety of procedures which the teacher might use in planning and developing the unit.
9. to suggest possible learning outcomes in the form of major understandings, special abilities, and the like which may reasonably be expected to result from the learning experiences of students.
10. to offer suggestions as to how achievement of these proposed outcomes may be evaluated.
11. to suggest "leads" to other related units which might grow out of the proposed unit.¹⁹

These statements outline the important functions to be served. They are not a mandate on the form of organization to be used.

It is very easy, in the construction of source units, for teachers with rich backgrounds of information to be carried far afield from pupil concerns in listing activities and areas of exploration. The following steps in procedure will serve as a check against this tendency:

1. selection of problem area or need;
2. analysis of factors or problems involved;
3. listing the concerns and interests of adolescents within each factor or problem;
4. listing understandings or generalizations necessary for satisfaction of these concerns;
5. listing activities (educational experiences) which will aid in the achievement of these objectives;

¹⁹ *Science in General Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 460.

For complete source units see: H. G. McMullen, "A Unit on Public Health," *ibid.*; Gertrude Wylie Diederich, "A Source Unit on Genetics," *ibid.*; *Advanced Physical Science*, A Teachers' Guide, Los Angeles School Publication #337.

6. preparing bibliographies

- a. for teachers
- b. for pupil use
- c. visual aids.

Each step in this procedure serves as a directing and limiting factor for the task involved in the next step. Listing the concerns of students, in the form of typical questions as asked by boys and girls, will prevent wandering far afield. Obviously, the assumption is made that the teachers working on source units are experienced teachers seriously concerned with the problem of meeting the needs of youth. The judgment of teachers who have had wide classroom experience is probably more valid than many of the pseudo-scientific objective studies made by specialists in the curriculum.

Planning in the Classroom

The preliminary planning of scope by selecting and exploring large areas of experience leaves many decisions in the hands of the teacher and class. They must determine the study units comprising the year's work, and make all decisions concerning class procedure and routine. Teacher and class together have the responsibility for

1. setting up objectives for the year's work;
2. setting up criteria for the selection of study units;
3. determining the study units to be used;
4. determining the sequence of study units, including time budgeting;
5. defining the specific problems in the areas explored;
6. determining procedures to be followed;
7. evaluating each study unit in terms of the objectives set up.

Study units based on needs and interests of the students require far more planning than is needed in a classroom following a textbook or a course of study on an assignment-

recitation basis. The planning must be more extensive (preliminary planning and preparation of source units) and more intensive (teacher-pupil planning). Caswell and Campbell clearly state the need for this kind of planning. They use the term *experience unit* to designate a unit of study based on the needs and activities of students.

In developing experience units, continuous planning is of supreme importance. Careful initial planning is required for each group that is taught, and after a unit is initiated, the planning must continue throughout the development of the unit. The achievements or failures of each day's work modify what is to be done the next day. Consequently, planning of experience units has two major aspects. Initial planning involves laying out the general lines along which the unit may develop, and suggesting the available resources for development. Continuous planning involves developing the detailed procedures and steps to be employed from day to day, and adjusting these as demanded by the progress of the work.²⁰

The experience of teachers using teacher-pupil planning with classes over a period of years indicates that students can and will plan very intelligently. Their contribution at first will be meager and often insincere because they are attempting to guess what the teacher wants. It takes time and skillful teaching to convince students that their honest thinking will be respected. They are conditioned to docility and the playing of the age-old game of bluff and out-guessing the teacher.

The teacher's first task is to break down traditional attitudes toward himself. He must convince students that he is a partner in a common task—an important partner but a sympathetic one. Wendel Bragonier of the Lincoln High School in Des Moines finds that two questions he proposes to his classes are very fruitful in initial planning: (1) "What would

²⁰ Caswell and Campbell, *Curriculum Development*, American Book Co., New York, 1935, p. 441.

you like to know about the unit we are to study?" and (2) "What would you like to be able to do at the end of the unit that you cannot do now?" In the responses to these questions, the teacher and class find many leads for detailed planning on a cooperative basis. A valid approach is for the teacher to propose two or more possible lines of procedure. After thorough discussion of the possibilities presented, the skillful teacher will be able to lead the class to the acceptance of one or the other of the proposed plans, or better yet, to the formulation of a plan which is neither one nor the other but an entity in itself.

The Core Program in Denver

Most of the Denver junior and senior high schools are experimenting with core-course organizations following the adolescent-needs approach. There is no single "Denver" pattern, the schools showing wide differences in both the scope and sequence of the curriculum. The Denver East High School core program has been selected for purposes of illustration.

The total core program of this school is designed to deal with the inescapable problems of young people in a democratic society. Some of these problems are common to all young people, and others are individual and specific. The East High School staff defines general education as that part of the total school program which deals with needs that pupils have in common. Although such a program could never be called a course, nevertheless a block of time has been set aside in the school day for a consideration of the most pressing of these problems. Such activity goes on under the direction of a counseling teacher who stays with a group of pupils throughout the three-year period of the senior high school. As teacher and pupils plan and work together in the core, special needs and interests emerge which are provided for in the elective program of the school. This elective program

includes a wide variety of courses to which individual pupils may turn for developing special skills and acquiring particular knowledge. Such elective courses as specialized literature, college preparatory composition, ancient history, the history of the West, the history of South America, foreign languages, trigonometry, geometry, physics, chemistry, biology, commercial courses, and courses in the arts provide experiences that pupils may choose in order to meet their educational and vocational plans.

The core program is required of all pupils in every semester during the three years. It occupies a minimum of one hour each day; two hours a day are required of all incoming 10-B pupils. Physical education, which is a significant part of general education, is required during four semesters of the three years. The remainder of the school day is given over to elective courses.

A counseling or homeroom teacher is associated with a class of 35 pupils during the three years of the program. It is his responsibility to know the young people of this special group in such a way that he can help them in planning for their educational program—both in the core class and in the elective program of the school—so that both individual and group needs can be met. The counseling teacher helps the pupils under his guidance in social and vocational adjustments, and assists them, wherever possible, in the solution of their personal problems.

During the three years, each counseling teacher, instead of planning only with his pupils, also works with three or four other teachers who are working in the core program at the same grade level. The core teachers working together in planning groups, represent different subject-matter areas. In this way four or five groups plan together, and teachers have the benefit of one another's counsel and experience. The chairmanship of this planning group is held by each teacher

in the group some time during the three years. In this way responsibilities are shared and leadership is developed.

Excerpts taken from the Denver Report to the Commission on the Relation of School and College are reproduced in the Appendix (see page 320 ff.). The excerpts have been selected in order to illustrate the objectives of the core program and the nature of the problems considered.

The Administration of the Core Program

In scheduling core classes, and in assigning teaching responsibilities, certain practices seem highly desirable, if not essential. In the discussion of the *adolescent-needs* approach to core curricula, generalizations have been drawn from several schools rather than from a single school. It is, therefore, more the description of a trend than a description of the status of the core in any one school. The following generalizations concerning administrative practices also summarize the procedures of several schools.

1. *Two or three periods of each day should be used for core work.* Most core courses have adopted cooperative class work on the unit or problem under consideration. The classes are usually organized with a student chairman, class president, or chief officer. The work is planned by the class, and responsibilities for separate portions of the work to be done are assumed by, or assigned to, individuals or committees. A wide range of source materials is used. Many periods of reports, discussions, and summarizations are incorporated into the activities followed. The usual class period of 40 to 50 minutes is too short a time for effectively carrying out a number of these activities. If two periods per day cannot be allotted to the core classes, and it is necessary to operate on less than ten periods per week, the double period should still be used. For example, if the core class is allotted six periods per week, these should consist of three double periods. (Many exceptions can be found to this generaliza-

tion, especially to core classes at the eleventh- and twelfth-grade levels where one period a day seems to be reasonably satisfactory.)

2. *The teachers of core work should be persons who have proved effective in the fields of guidance and counseling.* Since the core courses are designed for direct consideration of the concerns and problems of students, the entire program is essentially that of guidance. Teachers who are sympathetic with, and sensitive to, the problems of youth, problems in human relations, and the developing culture, have proved to be the ones most successful in core work. The teacher who finds it difficult to depart from the subject matter of his special training finds it difficult to make those objectives concerned with the development of the individual a dominating factor in his work.

3. *There should be continuity of teaching personnel for a given class over a period of years.* This generalization is a corollary of the one just discussed. While it is true that occasional personality clashes between teacher and pupil will result, preventing an effective functional relationship, this should not be used as an argument against the proposition stated. Administrative provisions should be made in the organization of the school to adjust these cases on individual bases, perhaps by placing the pupil with another instructor.

One of the unsatisfactory features of our highly departmentalized and over-organized high schools is the impersonality of the counseling services. Until the guidance officer knows the student as an individual, guidance can never be other than impersonal and composed of abstractions and broad generalizations. This does not mean that schools fortunate enough to have a guidance specialist or psychologist will have no more need for his services. On the contrary, the effectiveness of specially trained guidance officers will be greatly increased. Such a specialist will bear the same relationship to the core teacher that the medical specialist has to the general practitioner. He will serve as consultant and

adviser to the core teacher and, in some cases, assume entire responsibility for the "case."

4. *The core teacher must be one who finds security in the objectives of "general education."* Teachers who are thoroughly convinced of the indispensability of certain subject matter (generally in the field of their own special training) do not as a rule make good core teachers. Core teachers must be able to *direct* activities in many areas of organized knowledge, but this does not mean that they must be *masters* of many fields, or even of any single field. The core teacher, more than any other teacher in the school, must be one who, in response to a question, can say, "I don't know, but we might find out by doing thus and so, or looking here or there." This again is in agreement with the statement previously made: *the teacher is to be considered as a partner in the enterprise.*

5. *Opportunity should be provided for calling in many other teachers to aid in planning or suggesting possible aids to the work of the class.* It is impossible for any one teacher to be a thorough master of the many fields explored by a core class. Trained specialists in the school can be of the greatest aid, and provision should be made to utilize the benefits accruing from their specializations. Suggested techniques for providing time for such consultations are to be found in Chapter VI.

6. *Wide varieties of class activity must be utilized.* The necessity for a wide variety of activities stems from the use of large blocks of time. When students are kept in a single class for a long period, the nature of the activities must be changed frequently to avoid fatigue and monotony.

The sharp distinctions in types of core courses as described in the previous pages do not exist in actual practice. A few of the core courses are very definitely pure in type, but most of them are "hybrids." The Denver core program is a good example of such a hybrid. While the adolescent-needs approach predominates, wide use has been made of the social-

demands approach in the selection of problems. This is consistent with the position taken in Chapter I, namely, that *needs* are both *personal* and *social* in character.

THE REORGANIZATION OF "SUBJECTS"

Curriculum revision in the schools has not been confined to the formulation of fused courses, such as the broad fields and core courses of the various types described. There are many available examples of the extensive revision of single courses in American history, chemistry, geometry, home economics, English, world history, and others. To describe all of these revisions in sufficient detail to be meaningful and helpful, would require space far beyond the limitations of this volume.

In classifying the fused courses, the differentiating factor has been the *approach* to curriculum formulation—subject-matter analysis, social demands, unified studies, and adolescent needs. With the obvious exception of the unified-studies approach to core curriculum, the same techniques are available in the revision of a single course. An additional limiting factor is present, namely, the necessity of confining subject matter to a narrow area. The teacher interested in revising single courses can secure considerable help from a study of the techniques followed in the development of core courses. For example, social studies and science teachers will find in the analyses of the Denver group many suggestions as to significant units of work. The same is true for teachers in many other fields. A few examples will be given.

Democracy in Evolution— A Course in American History

In Central High School at Tulsa, a course in American history is of interest.²¹ One year's study of American history is a state requirement in Oklahoma, as well as in many other

²¹ See Esther Larson, "The Tulsa Program, Central High School," *Social Education*, April, 1938. Extracts on this page and the following are from this report.

states. This requirement, of course, places definite restrictions on the choice of activities and on the area of subject matter.

Miss Larson assumed "that almost every problem of importance in the field of American history is a recurring one," listed such problems, and classified them under general headings or problem areas. From this listing the following units of study were selected:

America, Today and Yesterday
(1830-1937)

- I. Democracy Engages in Social Reform
- II. Democracy Engages in Social Conflict
- III. Economic Revolution Overtakes Democracy
- IV. Democracy Establishes a World Power
- V. Reforming Democracy: The Progressive Era
- VI. Mobilization to Make the World Safe for Democracy
- VII. Democracy Again Engages in Social Reform

The general purpose of the course was to provide the students with concepts of the evolutionary characteristic of American democracy, and the nature and meaning of democracy. The sequence of units was established on a chronological basis. In the words of Miss Larson, "The semester closes as it opened, for after one hundred years democracy is still reforming, and it is obvious to the students that to reform is an established democratic procedure rather than the *un-American practice* it is so often called during each *progressive era*."

Typical assignments follow:

America, Today and Yesterday
Unit I
Democracy Engages in Social Reform
(1830-1860)

The democratic upheaval of the so-called Jacksonian Era was not limited to our own country. Rather it was a worldwide move-

ment not dissimilar to the struggle of the masses everywhere for larger rights and greater opportunities.

Now it is your assignment not only to study and to appraise this pioneer attempt but also to appraise the ever recurring effort to apply the theory of democracy to all phases of American life.

Problems to be solved:

1. To show what is accomplished when democracy engages in social reform.
2. To show how new discoveries and inventions have revolutionized and democratized life in America.
3. To point out the parallel between the pre-Civil War era and our own times.

Class Activities:

1. "Labor Is on the March." Thus reads a familiar headline in the morning paper, and it is easy to evaluate the progress labor is making at the present time. In fact one cannot escape doing so. Therefore it is profitable to investigate the beginnings of the workers' effort to apply the principles of democracy to labor. Give the reasons for labor's awakening during the Jacksonian Era. Discuss the methods the workers used, their program, and their accomplishment. Compare this early movement with labor's achievement today (Beard & Beard, 311-14, 370; Schlesinger, 510; Wilson, 423-24; Faulkner & Kepner, 440-45).

2. The application of the democratic ideal has been most successful in the field of politics. Suffrage was gradually extended to include all men, of course not without controversy. Account for this controversy. Are there people among us today who would question universal suffrage? Justify your answer. What was accomplished in Jackson's day by extending the suffrage? Associate this with labor's victory during our own times. Emphasize some of the effects of universal suffrage today (Beard & Beard, 314-22; Schlesinger, 10-13; Wilson, 333-35; Faulkner & Kepner, 209-10).

In the planning of this course, a mixture of techniques has been applied. There has been some subject-matter analysis, consideration of contemporary problems, and a considera-

tion of needs. Subject-matter analysis functioned in the listing of recurrent problems of American history. Contemporary problems formed the criteria for the inclusion or exclusion of material from the course. Student needs functioned in determining the method of organization and the "teaching emphasis" applied to the course. The need to understand the culture in which one lives, which seems to dominate the teaching emphasis, is immediate, personal, and social in nature.

The course is treated in topical form rather than in problem form. In a topical treatment the subject matter is dealt with in narrative or expository fashion, and the topics in both scope and sequence are selected in advance. Such a course could readily be administered through the problems approach if students participated in the definition and solution of problems.²² The American history course at the twelfth-grade level in Des Moines is an example of the problem-solving type of student activity.²³

Mathematics to Meet Adolescent Needs

As an example of the contribution of a single subject in meeting a need of adolescents, a unit of work in mathematics at the seventh-grade level in the Ohio State University School is interesting. Accepting as acute at this age level the need for an understanding of what constitutes physical normality Mr. C. C. Weidemann attempts to do something about this need. The mathematical media of measurement and statistics are used. The class makes many measurements of each student in the group. Height, weight, bust, hips, waist, length of arms, legs, and fingers, diameter of hair, strength of grip in each hand, and chest expansion are a few of the measurements made of each individual. These data

²² A. N. Zechiel and S. P. McCutchen, "Reflective Thinking in the Social Studies and Science," *Progressive Education*, April, 1938.

²³ Earl Kalp, "The Des Moines Program," *Social Education*, April, 1938.

are then analyzed in many ways. Averages, medians, and norms are obtained and compared with similar data compiled on a wide basis, the class arriving at the conclusion that the only *normal* characteristic about an individual is his *abnormality*. The terms median, average, and norm assume more than statistical significance for the student; they have *personal* significance.

This is an excellent example of *functional teaching*. This approach is *not* made in order to teach measurement and elementary statistics. It is *not* selected as an effective motivating device. Measurement and statistics as mathematical devices have been selected as the media to be used in satisfying doubts, tensions, and worries frequently found at about the age level of seventh-grade students.

A junior high-school mathematics class in Keith Junior High School in Altoona organized and administered an insurance company.²⁴ Policies were sold to the purchaser, giving protection for loss or damage to books for which the student had responsibility. The necessity for finding a safe depository for accumulated premiums led to a study of banking and investments because the students had money to invest, not in order to "learn something about banking." The problem was real, immediate, and personal, and was not lacking in significant social and economic concerns.

Students at the Tower Hill School, George School, and Beaver Country Day School run a school bank and school store. Each student (above the fourth grade) has a checking account in the school bank. Deposits and withdrawals are made on a *banking basis* with real money, and with checks that represent real money. With modifications, this practice is also followed in several other schools.

Geometry teachers are making splendid contributions to the development of the ability to do clear, unbiased think-

²⁴ Ruth R. Meek and A. N. Zechiel, "Functional Mathematics Teaching," *Educational Research Bulletin*, November 20, 1940.

ing. The roles of definition, assumption, undefined terms, and unstated but implied assumptions in the process of deductive proof are stressed through both geometric and non-geometric media. For example, a school bulletin on the subject of tardiness stated that "habitual offenders" would be required to leave school. With this as a point of departure, the class took up a consideration of the tardiness problem and obtained (under pressure) a statement of the number of times late constituting "habitual tardiness." Political speeches, sermons, advertising, and many other types of written and oral communication are analyzed for undefined terms. In the use of geometric media, many problems involving area and space are developed and solved. The class formulates its own definitions and assumptions, and builds thereon a "system of geometry." Mr. H. P. Fawcett of the Ohio State University School has been a leader in this movement in the use of geometry. He states:

In the first place it is essential that we ourselves know exactly what we mean when we speak of the "nature of proof." There are many aspects of this concept, and a teacher who has taken it as his major objective should determine just which aspects he wishes to emphasize. We felt that our purpose would be served best if we could lead the pupils to understand:

1. the place of definitions and assumptions in any discussion;
2. the relation between the conclusions reached in any area of thought, and the definitions and assumptions on which these conclusions depend.

While it may seem that we are emphasizing only a small part of what may be considered as belonging to the "nature of proof," we believe that it is a very important part. We also believe that once a pupil understands these aspects of a so-called "proof," his thinking on any problem which confronts him will be clarified. The real value of this sort of training to any pupil is determined by its effect on his behavior. We should expect the behavior of a pupil who clearly understands these two aspects

of the nature of proof to be marked by the following characteristics:

1. He will select the significant words and phrases in any statement which is important to him and ask that they be carefully defined.
2. He will require evidence in support of any conclusion he is pressed to accept.
3. He will analyze that evidence and distinguish fact from assumption.
4. He will recognize both the stated and unstated assumptions essential to any conclusion.
5. He will evaluate these assumptions, accepting some and rejecting others.
6. He will evaluate the argument, accepting or rejecting the conclusion.
7. He will constantly re-examine the assumptions which are behind his beliefs and which guide his actions.

We hesitate somewhat to present this list of behavior traits for there are doubtless many people who are honestly skeptical that any such results can be accomplished. However, when we study the far-reaching power of definitions and assumptions, and their relation to the conclusions reached in any area of human thought, we are not tampering with the *branches* of the tree of knowledge. We are dealing with the *roots* and our experience definitely shows that this approach does change the thinking of children in the direction indicated.²⁵

The revision of a single course can be accomplished by the use of the same techniques as those described and illustrated earlier in this chapter and in a more general way in Chapter VII. The process involves:

1. a clear statement of objectives;
2. recognition of the limiting factors, such as a state

²⁵ H. P. Fawcett, *Nature of Proof*, a bulletin of the Progressive Education Association, Evaluation in the Eight-Year Study.

For a more comprehensive discussion of the subject see H. P. Fawcett, *The Nature of Proof*, Columbia University Press, 1939.

requirement or the necessity to confine subject matter to a single area of narrow dimensions;

3. determining the extent to which the attempt to achieve the objective is a function of subject matter, class procedure, or teaching emphasis;
4. constant revision in the light of experience.

Many decisions must be reached. Are the course objectives compatible with the school objectives? Do the course objectives contribute to the school objectives? Shall the subject matter used be selected on the basis of subject-matter analysis, social demands, adolescent needs, or a combination of two or all three of the techniques? Are the objectives of the course in the area of general education or specialization? Shall pupil-teacher planning be practiced? If so, to what degree and within what limits? Whatever form the answers to such questions may take, the necessity for clearly defined purpose is obvious.

CONCLUSION

A consideration of complete "courses of study" has been omitted from this chapter. Courses of study are means to ends, not ends in themselves. One generalization stands out clearly from the experience of the schools: to assume that the adoption of a "course of study" will insure the achievement of the objectives for which it was designed is to ignore such vital factors as method, teacher personality, and the validity of objectives. Means should never be confused with ends. New courses or revisions are only means to an end, and those end products for which the schools are searching are to be found in the *purposes of an educational program in a democratic society*.

Chapter III

THE WHAT AND WHEN OF INSTRUCTION



Perhaps New-Fist, the Paleolithic founder of formal education, planned a new curriculum on a clean page. But that legendary character is the only schoolman who ever had that opportunity. Since his time, every educator desiring to change the curriculum has found that he has had to deal with pupils who knew what their predecessors had been taught, teachers who were satisfied with what they had been doing, and parents whose desires for their children's education were based upon approval of, or protest against, their own education. The very existence of school buildings has caused the curriculum renovator to phrase his problem: what changes can be made which can be put into effect in this building? rather than: now that we have planned our curriculum, what sort of building is needed to make it work best? The town council of a little mid-western town illustrated this point when it met one evening and passed these resolutions: resolved, that we build a new jail; resolved, that we use the old jail while the new jail is being built; and resolved, that we build the new jail out of the materials of the old jail.

The Curriculum Staff has indulged at times in off-the-record air-castle talking about what it would have accomplished had it been working with the schools in the Eight-Year Study in 1932 and 1933—a period when the original plans for deviation from conventional patterns were being made. No one will ever know whether that additional time would have made a difference in the curricular status achieved by the schools. The important thing to report here is that in

1936 each of the schools had a curricular pattern in effect; some of them were dissatisfied with that pattern, and, in the following four years, made efforts to improve it. In the process of improvement, it became apparent that certain fundamental decisions had to be made as to what should be taught and the order in which it should be studied. It is the purpose of this chapter to consider the factors that went into those decisions concerning scope and sequence.

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE PROBLEMS IN DES MOINES

The specific problem faced in the tenth and eleventh grades at Roosevelt High School in Des Moines may be examined. By 1936 the school had established a special group of students, had assigned certain teachers to work with those boys and girls, and had planned a curriculum for them which might be termed an English-social studies fusion, or more loosely, a cultural-epoch approach. The plan called for a study of world civilizations in the tenth grade, and the American heritage in the eleventh. The courses followed an historical or chronological organization, and included the literature related to the history studied (with some attempts to bring in art and music). They also provided opportunities to develop skill in oral and written expression. The history covered was not drawn from a single text, but from classroom sets of several texts. Nevertheless, it followed rather closely conventional materials, and the literature moved through classical writings in pace with the history. Thus, in the last analysis, the subject content of the courses was largely predetermined by someone other than the teachers involved, and the various inclusions were justified on the grounds that cultured people (meaning adults) needed to know these things.

At the same time, the teachers were becoming more and more aware of the needs and concerns of their pupils because

they associated with them for longer than the usual one semester, and came to know them better as persons. From the beginning, the teachers had regarded as their fundamental task the development in pupils of such desirable traits as cooperation, tolerance, and self-assurance. This is evident in the fact that from the beginning, instead of conventional marks, there were descriptive reports of the status of the individual student with reference to certain desirable abilities, attitudes, and skills, and his later progress toward these goals. The need for data on which to base these reports had led to new types of classroom procedures, and these, in turn, had suggested the desirability of changing the content. As more pupil planning and initiative were sought, more frequently were questions raised concerning matters being studied, and more frequently were suggestions volunteered for changes.

From the beginning, there was a struggle between the ideas of pupil development, and of subject- and skill-mastery. The statement of objectives, the nature of the reports issued to students and parents, the attempt through classroom procedures to bring about the pupil's recognition of his responsibility for his education and to develop in him a vital concern about making that education valuable to him personally, all tended to emphasize the idea of pupil development. . . .

On the other hand, there was a strong feeling upon the part of teachers and students alike that subject matter was intrinsically important, and that skills should be developed willy-nilly in or out of relation to their (the students') immediate needs. Parents also felt that these conflicting purposes were equally important, and this intensified the difficulty. They were very sympathetic to the idea of consideration of the individual child. At the same time, they were politely insistent upon coverage of subject matter and the acquisition of skills.

The most significant difficulty lay in the criteria for the selection of content. As long as the criteria continued to be something

other than their value in promoting pupil growth, there was conflict.¹

In the summer of 1937, most of the Des Moines personnel concerned with this new work attended the Bronxville Workshop. There they studied carefully the approach to curricular reconstruction set forth in *Science in General Education*.² This helped them to see more clearly one phase of their problem: the need for direct attention to the needs of adolescents living in a democratic society. But when they attempted to use the basic aspects of living, suggested by that book, as the determinants of content for their courses, they were confronted with all the old difficulties and many new ones.

During that summer, and for most of the following year—sometimes on school time but much more frequently after school hours—they tried to develop satisfactory units of work based on student needs. There always arose the double-barreled conflict between predetermined units and pupil participation in planning, on the one hand; and on the other, the immediate nature of student needs and the deferred values of content based on the social demands of adult society.

The Conflicts Illustrated

These conflicts are so fundamentally important in curriculum reconstruction that they warrant more specific examination. Teachers accustomed to teaching content for its intrinsic importance have always sought to present this content to the learners by some orderly pattern, and that pattern has usually been derived from the internal logic of the subject field. Instruction, therefore, has moved from the past to the present, as in history, or from the fundamental

¹ Des Moines Schools, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

² *Science in General Education*, Progressive Education Association, D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1938.

structure to the application, as in grammar. Furthermore, teachers have abhorred complete dependence on daily inspiration for suggestions concerning the day's work. They have wanted to look ahead, to know what is expected of them, to see what is coming next month. Thus has developed the course of study which is planned for the year or for three years, in which the units of work have been blocked out, plans for their development set down, and a clear indication given of the order in which they will be taken up.

In such an orderly scheme there is no need for pupil planning; and not many teachers relish the sense of hypocrisy which would be theirs if they permitted pupils to discuss possible units of work, or ways of studying them, when the discussion could have only one outcome: an acceptance of the plan which the teacher had already worked out.

But adolescents need training and practice in reaching intelligent decisions and in effective social participation. How can such training better be given than by group consideration of matters of as vital concern to them as what they will study and how they will study it?

The other conflict arose because, to adults, adolescent needs and concerns often seem impermanent and, as topics for direct study, trivial and flimsy when compared to such solid meat as the causes of the Civil War, or the theory of valence, or one of Shakespeare's tragedies. Thus the problem of how to behave on a "date" competes with *Hamlet* as a possible subject of study. (If the play were *Romeo and Juliet* instead of *Hamlet*, the two subjects might not be too far apart!) Stated succinctly, education for today must be mainly concerned with the contemporary. As Beard remarks, the contemporary is always the superficial. On the other hand, education for tomorrow inevitably involves prediction that the knowledge or skill being learned will be useful tomorrow. This assumes that teachers can lead pupils to learn, today, something for which they see no immediate

use, and that if it is learned today it will be remembered until there is occasion to use it.

Des Moines' Solutions

The Des Moines teachers found solutions for these conflicts that were at least partially satisfactory to them. The first solution agreed upon was a decision concerning the latter conflict discussed above. The list of basic aspects of living emphasized in *Science in General Education*³—personal living, personal-social relationships, social-civic relationships, and economic relations—had not been helpful to them as determinants of content or as the scope of their curriculum. After much study and discussion, they adopted a modified list of areas of living based on a study of the Mississippi State Curriculum Committee. These were:

1. Protecting Life and Health
2. Getting a Living
3. Making a Home
4. Expressing Religious Impulses
5. Satisfying Desires for Beauty and Recreation
6. Securing Education
7. Cooperating in Social and Civic Action
8. Improving Material Conditions

This list served as convenient categories for grouping adolescent needs; it also indicated important leads by which those immediate needs could be linked with "respectable" subject matter, so that the latter could be used to help to meet the needs. For example: historical, literary, artistic, and scientific materials dealing with the family, past and present, could furnish leads that would help to meet the need expressed as "how to get along with one's family."

The conflict between predetermined content and pupil-teacher planning was resolved by the development and use

³ *Ibid.*, Chap. II.

of source units. The eight areas listed above served as a guide to suggest areas in which source units should be constructed. Since a source unit is an inventory of resources for teaching (materials, procedures, activities, generalizations, bibliographies, etc.) and not a specific, sequential plan, it permitted the teachers to be prepared ahead of time, and yet preserved real opportunities of choice for pupils. Teachers could retain their sense of professional security, and pupils would obtain practice in group planning.

During the summer Workshop at Denver, 1938, fifteen Des Moines teachers worked on two major problems. The first was the determination of the scope of work for each of the three years; the second, the development of source units. From this summer's work, an agreement was reached: while all eight areas of living would be considered in all three grades, the tenth year should give especial attention to expressing the religious impulses, the eleventh year should give particular attention to satisfying the desire for beauty, securing education, cooperating in social and civic action, and improving material conditions. All of these were to be treated from the contemporary-problem viewpoint. The American history necessary to understand the background of the problems in each area was to be taught. Suitable reading valuable for an understanding of a problem was to be selected by the English class from past and contemporary writing. Free reading time was also to be provided. Technical English training was to be based on the needs of the particular student or class as the work of the unit developed and brought to light their shortcomings.

At least half of the time at the Workshop was spent on making source units which the teachers hoped would help solve their difficulties. When they returned to their own schools, however, they found that units made for general use in many localities were only of slight use in a particular situation. The underlying principles used in developing these

units were, nevertheless, of great value and afforded the basis for the next step.

This next step had four phases:

1. much more attention was paid to orientation than formerly;
2. real pupil-teacher planning within the general scope of the chosen areas was carried on;
3. the contemporary-problems approach was used;
4. a greater emphasis was put on activities other than assigned readings, recitation, and writing as means for gaining and expressing ideas.

Such means as guest speakers, interviews, construction of graphs, and art projects were more frequently used.

Hence, the most significant change that came about during the entire course of the experiment was the shift from subject matter to pupil needs as the criteria for the selection of content.⁴

As was true in Des Moines, so it has been elsewhere. Curriculum reconstruction has to face two basic problems: first, the determination of what shall be taught, and second, the order in which it shall be taught. Des Moines' decision concerning scope has been to ascertain the needs of the pupils, and to use the eight categories as the means of classifying these needs. The teachers have gained enough classroom security to use pupil-teacher planning in determining sequence.

EDUCATION FOR TOMORROW OR FOR TODAY?

Revolutionary thinking has been quietly going on concerning this problem of what to teach in the high school, and what to leave out. At one time it was a question to be an-

⁴ Adapted from Des Moines Schools, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

swered only by national commissions made up of research scholars known for their mastery of specific content fields. Then, state courses of study were formulated in the same pious hope that uniformity would produce excellence. The classroom teachers, barred from such profound considerations, meekly took the textbook handed them and marked off the doses by which the text was to be sequentially absorbed. Now, more and more teachers are coming to believe that three factors must be considered in deciding what should be studied: the uniquenesses of the local community, the needs and interests of the pupils, and the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher. The classroom teacher is the only one qualified to know all of these, and hence should make the final decision regarding what should be taught. (Each pupil, of course, makes the decision as to what will be learned.)

When the teachers concerned with the education of a group of pupils face the question of scope, they have three choices. They may teach that which always has been taught. They may decide on the knowledges, skills, abilities, and attitudes which *adults* find necessary in order to cope with the world, and teach those to their pupils. Or they may ascertain the *present* needs of their adolescent charges and teach the knowledges, skills, abilities, and attitudes necessary to meet those needs. In effect, the decision is between education for yesterday, tomorrow, or today.

No space will be devoted here to education for yesterday—persons interested can look about them. The other two bases for determining scope will, however, be analyzed. Education for tomorrow will be labeled the “social-demands approach,” meaning the demands which society makes on *adults*, while education for today will be referred to as the “adolescent-needs approach,” or simply, the “needs approach.”

The Social-Demands Approach

Various analyses, variously achieved, have been used to determine social demands. Bobbitt and his staff made a "job analysis" back around 1920 in order to provide the basis for the Los Angeles curriculum on which he was working. He and his assistants listed thousands of specific activities which adults are called upon to perform, and by placing them in categories, arrived at the scope of the curriculum. Leon C. Marshall, on the basis of individual reading, research, and "arm-chair philosophizing," has set up a list of basic social processes that operate in any society, and at any time, and he has urged that these be made the determinants of what should be included in, and excluded from, the curriculum. A Mississippi curriculum committee, under the leadership of O. I. Frederick, collected nearly forty analyses of social activities and, by putting the items together, ruled out duplications and made some adjustments. This produced a list of nine major areas of human activities on which the Mississippi curriculum was planned. Whatever the method used, the result of a social-demands analysis has usually been a list of from four to fifteen items that serve as the basis of the curriculum.

Once determined, the list of social demands has been used in several different ways. An analysis of the common elements of culture has been made the basis for revising a history program at the Tower Hill School. The teachers of various grade levels there agreed to accept the responsibility for curriculum making for their students and, although each grade level studied a different culture, continuity in the program was sought through agreed-on emphasis upon the elements common to all cultures.

The Fieldston School has set up six pre-professional fields of interest: euthenics, economics and business, art, literature, music, and science.⁵ Each student's choice from the six

⁵ Koch, Margaret A., "A Guide to the Study of Modern History" (with

serves as the focal point around which his study in his various classes is oriented.

In the Lincoln School, an analysis of the major areas of human activity was made the basis for selecting topics of study for correlated work. The procedures were interesting enough to warrant some elaboration. The teachers started their tenth-grade pupils on a study of the life and literature of the ancient Near East. After the students had studied the Egyptians, Babylonians, Assyrians, Hebrews, and Persians, the teachers helped them make a list of the elements of living important to all these peoples. Then the class turned abruptly to a study of various Utopias, using Plato's, More's, Bacon's, and Bellamy's among others, looking for the ways in which the basic problems of living were solved in ideal societies. After revising their scope in the light of contributions made by the Utopias, they turned to contemporary metropolitan New York in order to see how their own society was meeting these problems. This concluded the year's course.

These illustrations have demonstrated ways in which agreement on scope—a scope based on adult society's demands—has influenced curricular planning. It has also influenced decisions as to the sequence in which units of work would be taught. No school in the Eight-Year Study has based its sequence on a social-demands scope, but several of the newer state curricula have done so. Since this process represents the logical fruition of the social-demands approach, it may be desirable here to look at its possibilities and limitations.

The Curriculum Chart

After a curriculum committee has developed its list of items that comprise the common elements of culture, or the

emphasis on the social interest of the individual), bound mimeographed, 1936.

major areas of human activity, each item is analyzed to determine the logical development of that particular element or area, or to discover its functions or its impact on the individual. These analyses are then apportioned to the various grade levels. Quite frequently the student is led through expanding horizons or concentric circles to a full understanding of each function of living. Thus the area "Protecting Life and Health" suggests that safety in the home should be taught in the seventh grade; safety in school and community in the eighth; municipal health programs in the ninth; the state's responsibility in the tenth; and health as national and world problems in the eleventh and twelfth grades, respectively. A similar analysis would be made for each item included in the agreed-on scope. So, if the elements of culture or areas of living are made the headings of horizontal columns, and the grade levels head the vertical columns, a chart can be constructed that will tell at a glance the whole curriculum of any specific grade level.

Once the *materia* of the curriculum has been determined, the school faces the problem of deciding whether the content placed in each grade level should be taught in separate subject fields, by correlation or fusion, or in one of the various core-curriculum organizations. That, however, is a question which has been dealt with elsewhere in this volume.⁶

Advantages of Predetermined Scope and Sequence

This approach to a scope and sequence determined in advance of teaching has certain obvious advantages, the most important of which is that it contributes mightily to teacher security. Whether we approve of it or deplore it, most secondary teachers have been trained to a mastery of certain fields of content. This constitutes their professional *raison d'être*, the difference between them and the average

⁶ Chapter II.

layman. There is a vast amount of comfort in knowing the predictable demands of one's job, in having a reasonable idea as to what one's work will involve tomorrow and next month, and in feeling competent to meet those requirements. Here is one of the basic factors contributing to the reluctance of teachers and schools to abandon the old, logically organized subject fields. In many cases it encourages teachers to oppose a change toward a social-demands curriculum. In other instances teachers come to see the futility of the conventional curriculum and are willing to consider basic change; but they still shrink from the unpredictability of the adolescent-needs approach and favor the social-demands plan because the latter affords the security of more certainty concerning the content they will be required to teach. This conservative factor in educational reconstruction will probably continue to operate until teachers come to see that the fundamental purpose of education is not to be measured primarily in terms of mastery of content but in changes in behavior; therefore, the constant and predictable and important factor is not the content but the learning situation.

A second advantage of the curriculum based on the social-demands approach over the curriculum based on adolescent needs is that it is easier to demonstrate the importance of the content to parents, other laymen, and to conservative teachers. When the needs approach is used, the validity of the content depends on the immediate learning situation; lifted from that context, it may appear trivial and open to the label of educational "boondoggling." When the content is based on the demands of adult society, questioning adults are much more likely to approve of it. Obviously this advantage is one of expediency. The intelligent corps of teachers realizes the impossibility of avoiding all criticism, and therefore faces courageously the necessity of distinguishing between those who have a right to criticize and those who do

not. If these teachers take the next logical step, they will agree that persons who have the right to criticize the curriculum have a share in the responsibility for planning it. The use of parents' councils and parents' meetings, in which parents share in the planning and are acquainted with procedures, has almost invariably brought approval for either approach—adolescent-needs or social-demands.

A third advantage of a predictable sequence is that it permits the preparation and mobilization of materials for teaching. In fact, more teaching materials are available on the various phases of adult society than can be found on adolescent concerns. Predicting the sequence permits time for securing these materials and planning their effective use. If the teacher using the needs approach were forced to sheer opportunism, he would have to abandon it. With the trend that has developed in Workshops, however, teachers using either approach can build source units that serve to mobilize available materials on any or all of the topics in the agreed-on scope.

Disadvantages of Predetermined Scope and Sequence

Certain disadvantages inherent in the social-demands plan should be presented.

Once the areas to be studied at each grade level have been determined and set forth in the curriculum chart, they tend to become frozen there. When the scope is fixed by adult social demands, and the order of studying them has been determined by a logical, "expanding horizon" analysis, the repetition that is needed for good teaching has difficulty finding a place. The social-demands approach assumes that, once an area or topic has been treated at a specific grade level, students will have no need to study that topic again.

Another disadvantage develops because most sequence charts assume a logical and orderly pattern of living and experiencing; when pupils are studying the circle of the com-

munity, they should have no contacts with or desire to know about the state, the nation, or the world, if they are to be satisfied with such an approach. If questions about these other horizons arise, they must be deferred—students must be told that they can't study things that interest or concern them now while interest is keen; such study must be postponed until those topics are reached in the logical pre-arranged order of things. The alternative is for timely problems to be taken up independent of the scheduled curriculum, and the result is a two- or three-ring circus. Thus, in stressing the "fundamental," there is no natural place for the "timely." The ideal curriculum makes functional use of the immediate and the contemporary, mobilizing the historical and the "fundamental" to help the student reach intelligent decisions about those things that concern him now.

Finally, a curriculum based on adult social demands, taught in a fixed sequence, rests on certain assumptions concerning predictability, motivation, and retention, which ought to be examined. The major reason for attempting to teach adolescents certain facts or skills which are useful only to adults is the expectation that when these young people have become adults, they will use the facts and skills they learned three to ten years before. This sort of curriculum, therefore, must assume that it can predict correctly the knowledges and skills which will be functional for the next generation. Even though there are few of us who would claim this competence in forecasting (and the lack of agreement varies directly in ratio to the size of the planning group), let us assume for the moment that this prediction has been made and a curriculum so established. The next difficulty to be faced is that of motivating all the pupils to learn these knowledges and skills, the necessity for which is likely to arise in the future. In the high schools of twenty five years ago this was no serious problem. Secondary school populations then were a selected group, made up of those

students to whom bookish learning was quite satisfactory; those who demanded proof of utility before they could learn were ejected into industry and agriculture. During these twenty-five years, however, the educational picture has changed and the great majority of the youth of high school age is enrolled in classes. Hence we must now deal with large numbers of pupils who either tacitly or explicitly raise the question: why should I do this? whenever an assignment is made. If the answer is that the present assignment is to be done because it will be of possible helpfulness to the pupil ten years from now, large numbers will go to the movies that evening.

Even if the curriculum-planning group has predicted accurately, and the classroom teacher has succeeded in motivating the pupils to learn now that which will be useful later, it should be recognized that an assumption concerning retention is involved. Knowledge usually persists to the extent that it is used. When no immediate use is possible, rapid loss is to be expected. Students tested on the factual content of a course a year after its completion have shown as high as an 80 per cent loss of the mastery which they had demonstrated by a comparable test the year before.

Indeed, there is some basis for an even more serious indictment of the sort of curriculum that anticipates needs and attempts to meet them before they arise. If the assignment of these materials simply drove pupils to the movies, or resulted in their being learned and quickly forgotten, it would be bad enough. But a strong case can be made for the charge that anticipating needs may cause psychological scars which will hinder learning in the future when the need actually exists. For example, a student's inability to read may be the result of a standardized reading curriculum which exposed him to reading before he was ready for it, and thus convinced him that reading was a tool which he could never master. The pupil who dislikes history, the girl

who hates science, the student who becomes physically ill over his mathematics problems—all may have been thus turned against fields of learning which they might otherwise have found exciting and valuable.

The Needs Approach

The approach to curriculum reconstruction through a concern for adolescent needs received its greatest impetus from the work of the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum and its first published report, *Science in General Education*. That book establishes its thesis with this sentence: "The purpose of general education is to meet the needs of individuals in the basic aspects of living in such a way as to promote the fullest possible realization of personal potentialities and the most effective participation in a democratic society."¹ This emphasis on meeting adolescent needs has furnished many teachers with a new approach to their responsibilities. It is true that for generations teachers have said that their students needed to know the Constitution, Boyle's law, Milton's minor poems, etc. The impact of the work of the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum has been to separate these needs (if they be needs), which are justifiable by patterns of adult ideals, from needs of adolescents. With their attention sharply focused on youth needs, teachers lately have sought to observe and describe the drives, problems, concerns, and interests of their students, and to plan to meet these needs *as directly as possible*.

In a discussion of adolescent needs in curriculum reconstruction, one point must be made forcefully. Any list of needs that may be printed with any idea of general applicability is valid only as a listing of generalizations, and contains a high degree of abstraction. One may say quite accurately, even though the opinion be subjectively determined, that Tom has a need for self-assurance, or that Susan needs to

¹ *Science in General Education*, p. 23.

find her proper place in her immediate social group. One may even determine that a given group of students, say the 9-B-2 group in the Horace Mann School, needs a more comprehensive philosophy of living, or is deficient in social cooperativeness. However, it would be highly dangerous to assume that a list of needs framed with reference to a particular group of students in a certain school in a specific city can be uncritically applied to other students anywhere.

With this warning, it might be desirable here to classify some of the tensions of adolescents that are being used as bases of curriculum reconstruction. These may be presented under three group headings:

1. Those possible pupil problems on which students themselves will report, once a rapport with the students has been established.
2. Those tensions and drives that lie below the level of student consciousness. The effect of a need may be apparent to the pupil, but he is not cognizant of the basic cause.
3. Student interests. Although interests and needs are technically not the same thing, knowledge of students' interests can often furnish illuminating leads to their needs. Certainly, ascertaining students' interests has the same basic impact on curriculum reconstruction as does knowledge of their needs.

Group 1

Getting along with brothers and sisters

Planning how to make a living after finishing school

Learning how to work and study efficiently

Building a philosophy of living

Being courteous to others whom one does not like

Becoming more attractive and popular

Learning to drive a car and getting a license

Finding out which colleges and universities are best
The type of government which is best for the United States
Providing for the unemployed
Relation of government to the individual

Group 2

Learning to do something well enough to gain the respect
of one's social group
Learning to behave more like adults
Proving self-reliance to one's self and to others
Demonstrating independence of adult decisions
Fear of making decisions independently
Conforming to the standards of one's social group
Adjusting to new social groups
Fear of change of familiar patterns
Desire for change; dislike of routine or monotony
(It will be noted that some of these are contradictory;
adolescents are frequently pulled and tugged by opposing
drives.)

Group 3

A list of adolescent interests is likely to be elusive material. An area which may be an explicit problem to one student may cause no tension for another, and may, quite legitimately, be listed as an interest. In general, interests may be found in those areas in which a boy or girl has been successful in gaining recognition from some of the groups of which he is a part. Interests may also be found in those activities that offer satisfactory escapes for the individual. With this explanation, the following are offered as illustrative:

Hobbies, such as photography or radio
School subjects: mathematics, home economics, etc.
Proficiency in sports
Finding a place in one's social groups

Learning to drive a car

Preparing for marriage and family life

Choosing a vocation

This concern of teachers for the needs of their students has affected both the content of courses and classroom procedures. Units of work on home and family relations, caring for personal appearance, securing a job, intelligent choice of recreation, and the like, have been introduced directly into the course of study when it has seemed likely that a study of these topics would best meet the needs of the students. In some schools this has been done within the conventional organization of recognized subject fields, with topics such as those mentioned above being dealt with in science, social studies, English, industrial arts, home economics classes—indeed, wherever teachers have become conscious of their pupils' needs, regardless of the subject field. Some of the best efforts to ease the tensions caused by provincialism and membership in social and racial minorities are being expended by a foreign language teacher in Denver. A mathematics teacher in Beaver Country Day School is helping her students meet their needs by teaching them to budget their time and money wisely.

Other teachers have felt that the demands of conventional subject fields serve as a barrier to the direct meeting of needs by new content. Therefore, they have set up new courses, either taught by one teacher or by several in a core curriculum. For a description of the planning of core programs, see Chapter II of this volume.

The effect of an insight into student needs on classroom methods has been even more incisive. Needs for varieties of satisfactions and means of expressing them have pushed the conventional "read and recite" into the background; needs for greater social participation have led to cooperative enterprises, with the diminishing of individualistic competition.

Among the ways in which teachers seek to meet pupil needs are pupil-teacher planning, the use of committees, panel discussions, informal debates, round-tables, dramatizations, radio presentations, moving pictures, the making and taking of movies, slides, cooperative map projects, murals, classroom newspapers, living newspapers, guest speakers and students on speakers' bureaus, interviews, and the use of the community as an area to be studied, as a resource in studying, and as an arena for action.

Difficulties and Strengths of the Needs Approach

When teachers seek to reconstruct their curricula in order to meet needs directly (especially when content is radically revised) certain problems arise as might well be expected. In the first place, needs are difficult to predict accurately far in advance for any given group, and hence there is the danger of permitting immediate trivialities to absorb too much time. Undoubtedly a part of some core programs has been filled with "fluff," as old-line critics have charged. It is only natural that teachers participating in curriculum construction in new and uncharted areas should make some mistakes, and occasionally they have let enthusiasms swing the pendulum too far from the old and have spent time on intellectual boondoggling. It has happened, too, that teachers basically opposed to core curricula have urged inclusions of inappropriate materials with the major purpose of discrediting the whole program. Education has had its "fifth columnists."

This difficulty, however, disappears, or is reduced to the vanishing point, when the group concerned with curriculum construction reaches some agreement on scope—headings under which needs can be classified. *Science in General Education* suggests that the curriculum should meet the needs of adolescents in four basic aspects of living: personal living, personal-social relationships, social-civic relation-

ships, and economic relationships. Curriculum reconstruction groups in both Denver and Tulsa have used adaptations of these four as their scope, while Des Moines groups found their eight-point modification of the major areas of human activity more meaningful. Altoona teachers set up their own four: communication, consumership, relation to the natural environment, and family living.

A second difficulty which has been encountered in basing a curriculum directly on student needs is that of repetition. There is a strong impulsion in this approach to have teachers work as curriculum revisers in grade-level committees, and there is much to be said for this sort of organization, since it draws together teachers whose common ground is the same group of pupils, rather than a field of subject content. There is, however, a strong probability—especially in a large city system—that these committees will work independently of one another with the inherent danger of duplicating each other's curriculum offerings. Since we have seen that it is probably unwise to attempt to predict too exactly the needs of any given group of students, the solution to the difficulty of unplanned repetition is not found in the easy decision to provide means of acquainting one curricular-work group with the thinking and decisions of similar groups at different grade levels. That procedure is desirable but it is not enough.

Looking directly at the problem of duplication, it should be recognized that repetition is not necessarily an evil in itself. Learning is stabilized by the proper amount of repetition. Our real concern is to see that the learnings repeated are significant to the learner, and not merely to the teacher. Hence, if a need for improved personal-social relationships persists into the tenth grade for a certain group of students, even though it may have been dealt with directly in the ninth, the tenth-grade teachers are justified in dealing with the need. A fundamental sincerity in using the needs approach, a willingness to sacrifice commitment to certain

fixed content that "has always been taught at this grade level," and a reliance on intelligent pupil-teacher planning seem to be sufficient safeguards against most of the unconscious duplication.

One of the problems that administrators have difficulty in solving has an important bearing here, however. The above discussion has assumed that students would be held together in the same groupings or sections from semester to semester, and from year to year. This is not an argument for ability groupings, or groupings on any basis of homogeneity. It is, however, a claim that the needs approach can play much more directly and efficiently into the curriculum when groups are held together. It is furthermore a claim that such scheduling can be accomplished if it is considered sufficiently important by the administrator or schedule maker. Groups have been held together for two or more years in many of the junior and senior high schools of both Tulsa and Denver, and in a more limited way in most of the large schools in the Study. Indeed, any good plan of education, and most certainly the needs approach, requires that the teacher know the pupils as persons. This is scarcely possible when class groups break up and change teachers each semester, or even each year. The few personality clashes that may develop between teacher and pupil can be handled by shifting the individual pupils involved to other sections.

Another argument for a predetermined grade placement of learning experiences is found in the students who transfer from one school to another. Even if the administrator can arrange to hold sections together for two or more years (with whatever shifts the infrequent personality clash between pupil and teacher may require), he has no control over pupils entering or leaving his district, and these transients present a case for a city-wide predetermined course of study. Carried to its logical conclusion this would lead us to national uniformity of the most severe form by which the poor-

little-rich-children, driven from their New York homes by frigid frost or fashion, could enter the schools of Miami or Pasadena and continue the study of the same units of work and content which they had left in the East. Less facetiously, the problem of transfers is generally greatly exaggerated. It is used as an excuse to explain why nothing in the way of curricular change can be accomplished, rather than as a problem to be solved and a difficulty to be overcome. Actually, the school is exceptional in which newly transferred students make up as much as 5 per cent of the enrollment. As in the case of the low percentage of students in most of our public high schools going to examining colleges, these small minorities are a mighty little tail to wag so large a dog.

Finally, there is experimentation to show that a variety of backgrounds may be an element of strength in the classroom. A teacher of Shaker Heights Junior High School has deliberately taken a class of seventh-grade pupils made up of students from at least twelve different sixth grades, and has used pupil-teacher planning to determine appropriate units of study. For almost every theme suggested there was the inevitable "But we studied that last year" from some two or three members of the group. Refusing to accept that statement alone as a reason for abandoning the proposed theme, the teacher explored with the protesters the phases they had previously studied and the parts of the problem area they had not touched. She suggested that on certain parts, with which they were familiar, they might serve as the experts, helping the rest of the group. On other parts they would receive help from others. Her conclusion, which needs validating by similar studies, is that previous study of a problem-area by some members of the student group is not in itself sufficient reason to rule it out of the group's curriculum.

The curricular approaches described above represent theories in which dissimilarities and extremes have been brought out for purposes of emphasis. In practice there are many

curricula that lie between the extremes. It may be desirable here to describe the thinking that went into the Tulsa General Education⁸ program as an illustration of one of these middle grounds.

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE PROBLEMS IN TULSA

In 1936 the Tulsa school system was as highly departmentalized an organization as could be found. Each of the 12 or 14 departmental directors was monarch of a vertical section of the curriculum extending from the twelfth grade down through the first, and each had his teachers who worked exclusively in his department. In September, 1936, a Curriculum Steering Committee was established to recommend changes in curriculum, administrative procedures, and teaching practices.

Basic to the newer planning has been an agreement on two broad objectives:

I. To develop a fundamental faith in the American ideal of democracy, and to develop those attitudes, skills, and understandings which will enable the individual, as a member of the social group concerned, to become a positive force in the process of achievement of the democratic ideal.

II. To develop an effective personality through an understanding of self, and through an appreciation of the importance of the aesthetic and the spiritual in human activities.

The analysis of these broad statements into more specific operational terms is interesting, but too lengthy for description here. Out of these objectives, however, was derived the basic scope of the new curriculum. Its first statement included six areas:

⁸ Terminology has a way of acquiring local significances. In Tulsa, "General Education" becomes a proper noun, used to designate the core curriculum. Denver, similarly, has special meaning for the term "Core." Eagle Rock High School in Los Angeles uses the name "Basic Course," while Roosevelt High in Des Moines has designated its new work "Special Experimental Curriculum."

1. Building and maintaining physical and mental health
2. An understanding of the fundamental principles and institutions of a democratic society
3. Knowledge of the interaction between man and the natural environment
4. Fundamental skills and knowledges of communication
5. Acquaintance with and opportunities for self-expression through creative activities
6. Individual guidance and counseling

These were considered to be the basis of the core curriculum, and were to be supplemented by electives. The Curriculum Steering Committee conceived the core portion of the curriculum as consisting of those experiences and activities which should develop in the individual the understandings, skills, attitudes, and appreciations essential to effective living in a democratic society. Therefore, the committee felt that the core curriculum should meet the general education needs of all secondary school pupils and should be required of all pupils.

In order to care for individual differences and interests, the committee recommended that a portion of the pupil's time be spent in elective areas. It expected that an increasing amount of time would be spent in the elective portion of the curriculum as the student proceeded from grade seven to twelve, and as the goals of the core curriculum were achieved.

As the committee moved to implement the six areas of scope listed above, the members found it desirable to restate, re-arrange, and generalize their first formulation. They agreed, for example, that health was both a personal and a community problem, and that neither the individual nor society could be separated from natural environment. They also believed that "guidance and counseling" and "opportu-

nities for self-expression through creative activities" were not separate areas but should be included in every unit and every planned activity. Hence they reduced the original six areas to the following:

1. Personal development
2. Development toward more mature participation in a democratic society
3. Development of the essential skills of communication and expression

The committee then turned to the task of listing the problems around which could be organized the activities of any one unit, and found that there were natural subdivisions of the three categories it had established. Hence it arrived at a third statement of scope:

Personal development	{ 1. Physical development
	{ 2. Mental development
	{ 3. Cultural development
Development toward	{ 4. Personal-social development
mature participation	{ 5. Broad social problems
in our democratic	{ 6. Social-political relationships
society	{ 7. Economic relationships

It will be noted that these seven centers are subdivisions of only the first two general areas, but the committee felt that attention to skills of communication should be a constant objective of all core-curriculum activities. Parenthetically, it may be noted that the thinking of the Tulsa Committee was moving steadily from the type of scope based on demands of adult society, toward a scope concerned primarily with adolescent needs. The influence of the point of view expressed in *Science in General Education* is clear and accountable. Tulsa had a large, able, and active group in the Bronxville Workshop in the summer of 1937 (the Tulsa school system had also been well represented in the first

Workshop at Columbus the previous summer) and the group had shared in discussing and criticizing that volume while it was in manuscript.

Influenced by that point of view, Tulsa teachers were asked by their committee, "What are the needs of young people in the area of physical development? What are their needs in the areas of mental development, cultural development, personal-social relationships, broad social problems, etc.?" Hundreds of problems of young people were formulated by the teachers and given to the committee. These, classified by the committee under the seven centers, were intended to be samples of what was studied in the various grade levels of the secondary school.⁹

The Needs Approach to Scope

Following the thinking of the adolescent-needs approach, the Tulsa Committee then set up these criteria for the selection of core-curriculum problems:

The core curriculum deals with the fundamental areas of learning and experiences which are essential for all educated citizens in a democracy. Problems selected for development with the intention of enabling pupils to attain the objectives inherent in the core curriculum should

1. grow out of the interests and needs of pupils;
2. be common and recurrent in the lives of large numbers of pupils;
3. provide integrating experiences for pupils;
4. provide a variety of experiences suited to pupils of different abilities and needs;
5. aid pupils in developing socially desirable behavior patterns;
6. contribute to a continuous growth in knowledge and understanding which will enable pupils to cope successfully with the issues and problems encountered both inside and outside of school;

⁹ Illustrations of these possible pupil problems are furnished in the Appendix, pp. 328-31.

7. be such that materials and facilities can be made available for teachers and pupils;
8. permit a large degree of planning by the pupils as a group, by the pupils with teachers, and by pupils working alone;
9. be suited to the maturational level of the pupils who are to develop them;
10. be of such sufficient range and scope that they justify consideration by pupils and teachers;
11. permit creative and pupil-initiated work on the part of individuals.

The committee stated its belief that

when core-curriculum problems are selected on the basis of pupil needs, the actual choice cannot be made until pupils and teachers have

1. canvassed the needs of the pupils for whom the problems are to be units of experience;
2. made an inventory of the problems related to the need;
3. decided which are most likely to provide optimum learning situations in the conditions under which the group concerned must work.¹⁰

The Tulsa Compromise on Sequence

Up to this point, the thinking of the Tulsa Committee had been dominated by the adolescent-needs approach. At its next step, however, it turned back to a middle ground as it faced the question of sequence. The implication of the adolescent-needs approach, and of the three statements above, would be for Tulsa to organize source units on the areas and subdivisions of scope listed; make all of the source units available to the seventh-grade teachers; permit them and their pupils to work out the seventh-grade curriculum in terms of their needs; and pass on to succeeding teachers of upper-grade levels an informational log of what

¹⁰ Tulsa Public Schools, *op. cit.*

had transpired in the seventh grade so that eighth- and ninth-grade groups could similarly work out their curricula.

The Tulsa Curriculum Committee, however, concluded that

Theoretically, at least, this means that problems of this type cannot be selected until teachers and pupils have done considerable work together. In actual practice, however, experienced teachers are usually able to predict with reasonable accuracy the needs of a given group of pupils in a specific situation. Furthermore, planning in advance by the teacher on the basis of his predictions is necessary if materials are to be at hand when needed, possibilities for the development of problems are to be appraised, and effective teaching is to be done with a minimum loss of time and effort. The selection and development of curriculum problems of this type involves, then, two distinct phases: first, teacher selection and development of tentative problems of rather broad scope; second, teacher-pupil selection and development of the actual problem or sub-problems to be used as units of learning experience.

As one of the members of the Tulsa Committee said in a discussion, "We don't know any scientific way of arriving at grade placement of materials or units of work, but we can never put a new program into effect unless our teachers know ahead of time what they are expected to teach." Therefore, Tulsa set up a jury of more than 500 members in order to pool subjective judgments concerning the proper grade-level placement of units of learning. Selected teachers, parents, and pupils were asked to serve and each was asked to think in terms of a specific grade level. Each member of the jury was given the list of more than 100 "Suggested Centers for Grouping Pupil Problems in the Core Curriculum" and was asked to mark each item on the list *plus* if it should surely be taught at that grade level, or *minus* if it should surely be avoided at the grade level with which the juror had identified himself.

As a result of this process, certain over-arching themes¹¹ were set up for the core program in the secondary schools—a core program which would receive a diminishing amount of time as it moved to the upper grades.

While the sequence in regard to grade levels was fixed, the order within each grade level remained elastic. In the seventh grade, for example, the curriculum was to center around home and family life, but the topics listed under that heading were suggestive, not mandatory, and no sequence of topics was established. The problems of materials and the organization of units have been attacked, in the main successfully. By developing source units on various topics drawn from the over-arching themes, decisions as to what to teach, and when and how to teach it, have been reached by teachers planning together in daily conference periods, and by teacher-pupil planning.

In all probability, some such broad decision as to grade placement of units was required in Tulsa, if for no other reason than to bolster teacher security. It is interesting to note, however, that after a year or two of actually operating the General Education program, many Tulsa teachers began to urge the abandonment of the over-arching themes as crutches which they no longer needed. They had discovered that a problem of "home and family life" may reach into "living in the community," and that it serves no educational purpose to delay consideration of the community aspects of the home for two years merely because the established sequence so prescribes.

SUMMARY

To summarize, two questions of basic importance to the curriculum have been raised:

1. How shall we determine what should be taught?

¹¹ For the over-arching themes with suggested amplifications see Appendix, pp. 331-37.

2. In what order or arrangement shall it be learned?

At least three curricula have emerged to answer these questions. Variations and combinations are numerous, of course, but the traditional curriculum, the social-demands-of-adult-society concept, and the needs approach may be distinguished from one another.

The traditional curriculum has inherited its scope, its answer to the first question, from the classical school. It has depended on "eternal verities"; has emphasized languages and formal mathematics because they have always been taught; has stressed mental discipline; and has depended on faculty psychology and an indiscriminate transfer of training in order to reach its objectives. To this classical curriculum have been tacked on many utilitarian subject fields such as home economics, commercial subjects, industrial arts, and grudgingly, the fine arts, as taxpayers and students have demanded them. Midway between the sacrosanct and the merely useful have stood the sciences and the social sciences which have striven, somewhat despairingly, to win a place among the eternal verities by denying their own utility. These teachers of the sciences and the social sciences have sacrificed a birthright for a mess of very mediocre pottage, because although they have set up full courses of study, they have caught relatively few students. The traditional curriculum's trademark-stamped product is the student who emerges from its doors with 16 Carnegie units, at least 5 of which are in foreign languages, 4 in English, and 4 in mathematics. The remaining 3 are crumbs from the table over which science, social science, and the arts may fight.

The traditional curriculum's answer to the second question asked above has been largely a matter for departmental decision. Sequence is firmly fixed, and the bases of determination have been assumptions of the cumulativeness of subjects and learning. The student's pathway through the courses has been fully charted by announced prerequisites. There is

no place in the traditional school for correlation and fusion of content; there are no grounds for expecting integration of learning in the mind of the student. Teachers plan and work together in departmental groups in which the element common to those working together is a body of content, not a group of students. Thus this curriculum is thoroughly content-centered, and the student is found not at the hub of the wheel of planning but somewhere on the rim.

In the social-demands curriculum, the determination of that which should be taught is consciously achieved. Regarding the problem as one of major importance, the curriculum-making agency usually analyzes contemporary adult society and, around the elements thus discerned, it builds teaching units that stress the fundamental phases of modern living.

The sequence by which these units are taught is fixed at the time of planning. Generally the pattern is set to provide expanding horizons for the learner, or to demonstrate the concentric circles of the areas of adult social activity.

The adolescent-needs approach may use the same bases for determining scope as does the social-demands curriculum. It, too, seeks to distinguish the important from the trivial, the fundamental from the passing. However, it adds one criterion: each phase of its scope must be pertinent to modern adolescents as well as to adults.

It is on the question of sequence that the needs approach departs from the other two. In its planning there is no fixed allotment of themes or units to specific grade levels. It takes no responsibility for covering certain "essential" content. The themes it uses at each grade level are chosen in terms of the needs of the students at that time. Therefore, the sequence of units of study for a given group of students can be described after the students have completed the school-work but it cannot be predicted accurately before they enter the school.

Chapter IV

CLASSROOM PRACTICES



PRACTICE IS DETERMINED BY PURPOSE, PURPOSE IS DETERMINED BY PRACTICE

At the conclusion of a stormy meeting on the subject of needed reorganization of the secondary school curriculum the chairman, a school principal, brought the meeting to a hasty close. He was afraid that someone would really get down to fundamental issues and fight about them. With a tentative smile which seemed to apologize for the fact that the speakers were in earnest, this man announced that the meeting was over and pronounced the following words of benediction:

"You may all go home now, to consider and do as you wish with the bags of tricks the speakers have been offering."

The incident raised the hackles on the necks of a number of schoolmen present. But unfortunately, the great majority saw nothing wrong with it. This instance serves to illustrate the main thesis of this chapter.

Techniques, or the "how" of doing things, are not bags of tricks that can be taken by one from another and unthinkingly or indiscriminately applied. They should be determined by the purposes of the doer and by the limitations or conditions under which he works.

It will be fundamental to this chapter to assume that techniques are inseparable from the purpose to be accomplished by them; that what is to be done should be determined by the most careful thinking and the most sincere belief of those who are to do it; and that it will be affected in many

important ways by the persons involved, by the materials, equipment, and other resources available. It also follows that there can be no proper evaluation of the accomplishment or the techniques used to achieve it except in the light of its purpose.

Much of the actual secondary-school practice of the present is in contrast to this almost self-apparent truth. Many schoolteachers are using techniques that are traditional, respectable, and repressive rather than stimulating to learning. Why? Because those teachers were taught by those methods, because they are rated by their success in using those methods, because it is easier and safer to repeat time-hallowed mistakes than to blaze new trails and suffer the hardships of the pioneer.

Worst of all, many teachers work under administrators and in communities where they are never asked to justify their practices in terms of their purposes. In some cases it would be tantamount to a confession of incompetency even to suggest that purposes needed constant re-definition, or that school practice needs a sharp critical eye to reorganize it. In fact, the behavior of some of those responsible for schools has occasionally been representative of the ostrich-head-in-the-sand fable. There are times when it is an understandable temptation to avoid meeting troublesome issues face to face.

But unfortunately for educational ostriches, the fierce winds of inquiry have now blown long enough to carry away the sands of confusion and obstruction in a good many places. And lo! from one end of the country to the other, with a unanimity which is very convincing,¹ teachers and administrators are discovering certain aims that are common to all good education which is chiefly concerned with the

¹ Compare statements of philosophy and purposes in the reports of individual schools of this Study. See also statements by schools in following pages.

values we call democratic. Better still, this agreement seems to be reached in all subject fields and at all grade levels. It occurs when desire for the greatest possible development of the individual and the group is an actual, as well as a verbal, aim of educators. There is good reason to believe in the validity of aims so nearly identical yet developed in such widely differing places by people who have worked in complete or considerable independence of each other.

A statement of aims agreed upon by many schools and colleges is found in the brief summary on the record forms developed by the Committee on Evaluation and Recording of this Commission.²

The aims are given as "Behavior Characteristics which All Educational Experience Should Foster" and include

1. Responsibility-Dependability
2. Creativeness and Imagination
3. Influence on Others
4. Inquiring Mind
5. Openmindedness
6. The Power and Habit of Analysis: the Habit of Reaching Conclusions on the Basis of Valid Evidence
7. Social Concern
8. Emotional Responsiveness: to ideas, to difficulty, to beauty, to ideals, to order
9. Serious Purpose
10. Social Adjustability
11. Work Habits.

In addition, says this Committee, all educators should look for development of

12. Physical Energy
13. Assurance

² For membership see introductory pages of this volume.

14. Self Reliance
15. Emotional Control, and
16. Ability to Deal with: abstract ideas and symbols, people, planning and management, things, and manipulation.

It seems logical that all teachers should agree to these aims. Yet in practice, it has not been by any means the rule for departments to recognize so many common aims or the common cause of the all-around development of human beings. When such recognition occurs, it ends much jealousy and conflict over special or subject-matter prerogatives. This is eminently desirable, since the only defensible vested interest for a teacher is that which he holds in the good of the individual and the society.

AUTHORITARIAN VS. DEMOCRATIC PRACTICE

Since "Responsibility-Dependability" is something that many critics profess to be most fearful of losing in any change from traditional practices, it may be profitable to begin with this characteristic, and to inquire into just what methods and materials are most appropriate to its development. Is responsibility to be fostered by authoritarian methods? Can democracy develop dependable citizens of high-school age by democratic means? It is possible to make comparisons between these two practices by looking at two opposed examples. The first is an actual case in a school believing in standard current authoritarian practice. In an English class for eleventh graders, a teacher recently assigned the first 39 lines of "Thanatopsis" to be memorized by each pupil within a three weeks' period.

What is the effect upon the class of this authoritarian method of teacher-dictated assignment? The method makes the following assumptions:

*The Assumptions of
Authoritarian Practice*

First, that the teacher is sure that memorizing these lines will serve a good purpose;

second, that this particular poem is the best one for achieving that purpose for every member of the class;

third, that memorizing the poem will develop a positive attitude toward the ideas in the first 39 lines;

fourth, that reciting these lines is a satisfactory culmination of pupil experience with them;

fifth, that the pupil's development toward the purpose in view can be adequately tested by his success or failure in memorizing these lines.

It will readily be seen that the teacher who assigned this memory work, by the very act of assignment removed the possibility that any student in the class could show his dependability and responsibility with regard to defining purposes, selecting a topic of work, deciding upon a method of work, choosing the material to be worked with, and the form of presenting results. Thus, in place of these exercises in the power and application of responsibility and dependability, the teacher left the students only one kind of responsibility—the responsibility for doing what they were told to do.

A clue to the educational result can be found in the case of an exceptionally bright student in this class, who was very facile with words. This boy confided that he planned to memorize the lines on the day before the recitation. "I don't know what it's all about, but it is easy for me to learn it and forget it."

From such a comment, it does not seem likely that even a perfect recitation of the lines would have aided this boy toward the achievement of any vital kind of responsibility and dependability, certainly not toward an intelligent one.

At best, one might say that he was learning to accept an imposed task without serious inquiry into its values.

It is difficult to see, in this kind of teacher-dictated experience, any opportunity for creativeness and imagination (except in scheming how to fulfill the requirement with the least time and trouble), or how it fosters the inquiring mind (except to make the pupil wonder why the teacher thinks that "stuff" is so good). To accept a decree that must be obeyed without question, as was done in this case, would certainly check the development of the power and habit of analysis. It certainly removes the opportunity for any social experience except that of being put on the spot before classmates to prove one's facility in memory work.

Authoritarianism Again

To illustrate from another subject field, it was found that this same boy was working hard on his physics lessons during the weeks that he was postponing his memory work in English. Inquiry brought out the purpose: it was a purpose developed because the teacher had told the boy that he doubted his ability to stick to the job on his own responsibility, and the boy was going to "show them." So far so good! Young and old will respond to a challenge to demonstrate their ability to do things for themselves. But what was the job? It was, alas, to work a series of "problems" that were set by the author of the textbook. These problems required the student to memorize rules and formulas rather than to discover them by experiment undertaken to solve a problem. In addition to setting the problems, furnishing abstract materials to work with, outlining the method, and blandly assuming the values to be served, this textbook gave the answers. Entirely aside from the fact that this could hardly be called an experience in scientific method—where setting up a hypothesis and testing it inductively is of the essence—this certainly denied many opportunities to plan, to use

imagination, to release the inquiring mind, and to discover and test the evidence.

The same kind of examples could be found with very slight alterations in art classes where the teacher dictates the work and its nature, in the shop, on the playing field, in the history class and so on.

Yet this is the irony of the matter: nearly every teacher whose work is dictatorial in method will subscribe to the statement that independence and intelligent thinking—goals listed by Smith's committee—are important goals in his own teaching!

The Example Reversed— Democratic Method

In contrast to the foregoing example of authoritarianism, is the practice of the teacher who discusses with his students the purposes of education and the particular goals in his particular field or classroom. In the English class, such a teacher would not assign "Thanatopsis" memory work. He would raise such questions as:

Should we study poetry? Why?

What poems will help each of us to achieve our purposes?

Should the class as a whole read and recite, should there be small groups working on various poets and poems, should there be some reading and writing and talking on the basis of individual purposes and interests?

How should each student present the results of his study?

How can you tell whether the study has been valuable to you?

In one particular eleventh-grade English class where such questions were asked, the pupils and the teacher agreed upon the following:

Purposes:

Understanding America through literature;

Knowing what the poets say and how;
Broadening through reading.

Topics:

Poetry as a form of ideas and feelings in the
Colonial period
Civil War period
Cambridge poets
Modern period

Methods:

Every member of the class will read a few poems from each period. There will be four groups, and each member of the class will work with the group which interests him most, or where he can be of most service to the class. Each of these groups will make an intensive study of one of the four periods. Within each group, the members and the student chairman, with the advice of the teacher, will allocate special phases of the period to individual persons.

When the work was brought to a conclusion the class worked out the following:

Presentation:

These were made through long papers; short dramatizations; radio programs; collections of author portraits and other pictures, and photographs of various people and places; the writing of original poems; the making of an animated map showing the location of authors' birthplaces and the setting of poems; through dancing, and chanting Vachel Lindsay's "Congo."

Evaluation:

These were made through four principal means:

1. record of reading, writing and speaking kept by each student in a folder filed in the classroom;

2. an essay by each student listing the purposes he had in mind during the project; stating the evidence and his feeling about the progress he had made toward the accomplishment of those purposes; the strengths and weaknesses he had shown; and the indicated next steps;
3. evaluation by the rest of the class of the presentations of the four sub-groups;
4. class and individual planning for future uses of ideas and information gained through this unit.

It may be worth while to indicate how the purposes of education, as seen by this group, were to be served by the techniques and materials used.

First of all, by planning together, students were enabled to see that there were many points of view and many different needs and interests that had to be taken into account. They discovered reasons for experience in using imagination, releasing the inquiring mind, analysis, and the development of serious purpose.

The choice of topics reflected many of these same purposes.

The choice of methods involved consideration for the rights of others and recognition of individual differences, as well as careful planning which would encourage good work habits. The force of the social group—the whole class and the small groups—was constantly exerted to achieve a purpose determined by the group. Thus each pupil had much experience in learning how to work with others, and it was the commitment to a common purpose rather than the threat of teacher displeasure which spurred the laggards.

The presentations, by the variety of forms used, gave much play for originality and creativeness, and required for their success genuine enthusiasm and true disciplined use of this enthusiasm to create an artistic presentation.

The analysis, based on actual materials in hand, not only gave training in critical thinking; it was also a way of improving future planning and management.

PROCEDURES FOR DEMOCRATIC PRACTICE

In order to carry still farther an analysis of the teaching process, it may be useful to call the headings just given elements in the process of formal education by democratic method. These categories may also be called:

*Things to Think Out and Do Together—
Teachers and Pupils*

These “things” include:

1. define purpose;
2. choose a topic or topics which will help us achieve our purposes;
3. discover the methods of work which will be most efficient in accomplishing the purpose;
4. find and use the materials necessary;
5. develop the most effective forms in which to present the results of study and experience;
6. evaluate and make new plans on the basis of this experience.

The teacher who has all this clearly in mind will strive constantly to find the techniques by which pupils can learn the maximum from every one of these phases of the educational experience. A survey of the practices carried on in the schools of the Study seems to show that outstanding teachers in all fields are finding that the most profitable, inclusive means of aiding pupil development is the inclusion of students in planning. The next most valuable technique is planning among teachers. It is plain, also, that the results of including administrators and parents, though less frequent in actual practice, are also invaluable. From public, private and university schools come statements like those which

follow. The first statement emphasizes the importance of pupil participation in planning, and gives testimony regarding the "Responsibility-Dependability" aim mentioned earlier.

"The single most important development in New Trier during the course of this Study has been the growing ability of our students to share in the planning of the school program and the growing ability to accept responsibility."³

Equally important is the democratic sharing in planning by teachers and administrators.

". . . cooperative teacher-principal planning of faculty meetings and school policies has been one of the educational goals toward which teachers and administration have been working. Students, alumni, and parents have been brought into some phases of the school planning."⁴

Cooperative Planning—Testimony from the Schools Organizing Resources: Human, Time, Space, Material

The generalization can be drawn that where it is desired to put democracy into practice, the techniques of work in connection with any unit in any field should always include the provision, or the consideration, of three types of classroom personnel organization:

1. *Whole-group planning and work on a topic which is big enough to include the actual interests and needs of the class as a whole.*
2. *Smaller-group planning and work on such phases of the topic as seem natural and profitable temporary divisions for intensive research.*
3. *Individual planning and work both on special aspects of the subdivisions and on other interests which may not be*

³ New Trier Township High School, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

⁴ Des Moines Public Schools, *ibid*.

closely connected with the topic at hand. This last provides for the refreshment and perspective which a free reading program, for example, gives the poetry lover who is undertaking heavy reading in the field of science.

Such broad organization will, in turn, require careful planning for the use of time, space, material, and human resources. In many of the schools it has been found profitable to divide a 5-period week into 2 periods for general discussion, and 3 for work and conference. At the Dalton School one class meeting per week is often the maximum, with intervening time used by individuals and groups for looking up materials, using them, and securing the advice of teachers.

The question of space is most often encountered when it seems that there is no room large enough for a meeting of several groups during the class period. Even in very bad conditions of this sort, if the furniture of the room is movable it has been found possible to hold group meetings by having sections of the class move their chairs together. This has been done in Des Moines, Denver, and Tulsa. But noise and crowding make real thinking difficult. (It is a sad error to charge this difficulty caused by school architecture against the method of work.)

It is perhaps more valuable to schedule small group meetings, one at a time, for a half or a whole period. The space around the teacher's desk can be utilized for these meetings, and the rest of the class can work individually at their seats while the meetings are going on. Better still, of course, is a school situation where there are conference rooms, halls, basements, or other unused spaces to which student groups can go for conferences. Until the student chairmen develop considerable skill, however, it will always be more profitable if the teacher is near at hand to give advice when it is needed.

*Classification of
Activities*

The three types of organization mentioned above would seem quite clearly to lead to a wide range of activities that promote individual growth. Among them the following have outstanding value for students:

1. Opportunity for advisory conference with the teacher during which specific problems in the course of the work can be clarified, and next steps indicated.
2. Opportunity to be, and to work under, a student chairman.
3. Opportunity to be of service to the class, even in humble janitorial ways.
4. Opportunity to participate in the continual planning and evaluation of work in progress, such as is provided by the class steering committee. This committee, composed of three to five students, can often give the teacher invaluable aid. For example, one teacher who was unable to deal with a group of five boys who were always boisterous and troublesome during class discussions, received a suggestion from the student steering committee that these boys be separated from the class and offered the choice of future good behavior or a program to be worked out by them and reported in writing. The boys chose the latter alternative. They outlined a three weeks' program of individual reading and written reports, and after doing their first serious work of the year, were able to come back into the general work of the class with a much improved spirit. They had sufficiently proved themselves so that they did not need to beg for attention by anti-social behavior.
5. Contact with the "real" world. By interviews with business men and laborers, by trips to factories and city institutions, students as well as teachers gain a

sense of the common and the uncommon likenesses and differences between the life of the school folk and the lives of others outside the school.

6. The use of problems which are real and which are understood by the students engage their sympathy and enthusiasm from the beginning. This, furthermore, makes it possible for the students to see the value of what they are doing, and to learn how to evaluate their own work. Self-evaluation, in turn, leads to a desire to learn the things that are necessary for greater achievement.
7. The uses of all kinds of materials for learning and expression make experiences more vital for students of every level of learning-readiness and maturity.

By scheduling teachers and pupils for a block of time and for rooms in the school building, the possibility of effective cooperation to achieve these valuable aims is greatly enhanced. Teachers of Tulsa comment on the change from shorter to longer periods of contact with pupils, with two or more teachers working with the same grade and having time for cooperative planning. They say that the block schedule (offering longer contact between a small group of teachers and pupils) is good because:

1. It affords a better opportunity for teachers to become cognizant of the real purposes of public school education. When small groups of teachers are frequently confronted with such problems as, "What is best for this group?" "What is the best method of attacking this problem?" "Have we achieved our purposes in this work?" a greater opportunity to do constructive thinking and work toward achieving the purposes which they feel are important is offered.
2. Two, three, or more teachers working together have more opportunity to do effective individual and group guidance.
3. Teachers representing different subject-matter areas have an opportunity to place more effective emphasis on common

objectives and special needs, e. g., critical thinking; problem solving; written and spoken English; skills and attitudes.

4. It allows for greater flexibility to the schedule when a group of teachers have a group of students in common.
5. It can aid in preventing undesirable duplication in use of materials.
6. May allow for in-service training to teachers through co-operative planning and practices as well as appreciation of the efforts and contributions of individual teachers.
7. Allows a broader scope to the program of study as well as more opportunity for continuity of study.
8. Stimulates use of more "out-of-school" learning activities.
9. Students get a sense of satisfaction from recognizing the "carry-over" work from class to class.
10. Allows for concerted effort in the study and understanding of individual pupils and thus helps to recognize the greater worth of the individual.⁵

Another statement from the Tulsa system reiterates the necessity of conference time for teachers. It continues with a comment on the new reality with which teachers view pupils and their true level of development when the young people participate in planning discussions.

. . . a conference period of cooperating teachers was absolutely necessary if this type were to be successful . . . drawing pupils into the planning of learning experiences brought into the picture new viewpoints, and learning activities more on the level of adolescent interests.⁶

Most heartening is the fact that even in large city systems, the officers of central administration are convinced of the educational values which can only come from local planning to meet local needs. This is a striking trend away from the old tyranny of centralized supervision and pressure for uni-

⁵ Tulsa Public Schools, *ibid.*

⁶ From the conclusions of a group of teachers in a tenth-grade social studies course using "The Meaning of Democracy" as a subject of study when it was found to be a student problem, *ibid.*

formity. It is to be seen in Tulsa, in Des Moines, in Denver, and in Los Angeles. From the largest of these systems comes this statement:

Teacher-Pupil Planning Vitalizes Classroom Experiences

Teacher-pupil planning is in accord with our ideals of American democracy, in which the people, either directly, as in the New England Town Meeting, or indirectly through duly elected representatives, make their own laws, determine their own policies, and conduct their own affairs. This training takes place largely in the classroom through socialized activities such as pupil planning, selecting and arranging the materials to be studied by the members of the class. Through this cooperative procedure, where the teacher acts as a leader, guide, and counselor, motivation for serious and intensive study is not difficult to supply when the pupil himself has a part in the proposing and planning of his activity under teacher guidance.

Old educational patterns fail to meet the needs of the boys and girls in a rapidly changing society. The new educational philosophy broadens the very concept of education. Increasingly the curriculum is being related to life. Pupils are applying school experiences to real life situations. This is observed in most special field courses, as well as in all phases of the general education program. Needs, problems, philosophy, reflective thinking, enrichment, growth, evaluation, guidance, democracy, cooperation, and many other concepts are receiving much of the attention that was formerly given to "mastery of subject-matter content and preparation for college entrance."⁷

From Denver comes a like statement on pupil participation in planning:

It gave opportunity for cooperative development by teachers, administrators, and supervisors of democratic ideals and concepts which began to find increasingly important expression in the relationships between teachers and the administrative staff, between teachers and teachers, and between teachers and pupils. Practices in democratic living have been conceived and tested

⁷ Eagle Rock High School.

in the classroom itself through the cooperative action of teachers and pupils.⁸

To complete the testimony on this point, we may add the statement from a relatively small private school. The Beaver Country Day School says:

An important advantage of the Eight-Year Study has been its stimulation toward greater participation by the pupils in curriculum revision, considered as a service to national education. All pupils in the secondary department have a share each year in the reconsideration of what is being done, with opportunity to point out lacks, as well as to suggest deletions or other changes.⁹

By now, perhaps, a sufficient case has been made for this form of democratic classroom practice. Its values and its purposes have been described, and some testimony has been offered as to its importance and practicability.

Pupil Participation

At this point, then, it may be apropos to return to the outline of procedures (see page 111). That outline of "Things to Think Out and Do Together" was designed to point up the fact that every aspect of planning and classroom practice is an opportunity for shared responsibility. Thus, by inference, classroom practice which invites the fullest possible participation by all concerned is called *democratic*. Special emphasis is placed upon pupil participation, since the pupil is the object of these procedures, and since it is a likely hypothesis that the pupil who participates most will benefit most. The same is equally true all along the line, of course, in the case of teachers, administrators, and parents.

The long neglect of general participation, however, has made the task of achieving good results a difficult pioneer

⁸ Pupil-Teacher Planning, Denver Schools.

⁹ The Beaver Country Day School, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

venture. Within the school, and more particularly within the classroom itself, is now the greatest opportunity for inviting and testing the theory of maximum participation.

There is nothing esoteric about this method.

Teach-Pupil Planning—

A Method for Practicing Democracy

Teachers in the Eight-Year Study who have engaged in such pioneering have been trained in various subject fields. As they have worked with one another and with their pupils, the heart of the process has seemed to lie in the planning—hence the term “teacher-pupil planning,” or “pupil-teacher planning,” that has come to designate this effort to achieve democratic practice. However, the term is not important. What does matter, and matter greatly, is the discovery that with increasing participation, a shift of emphasis has occurred. This shift has already been indicated. It is characterized by a change from studying subject matter as an end in itself, to defining and studying the problems which most concern boys and girls in our society. This emphasis has been called the “problems approach.” It, in turn, has grown from the increasing understanding of the needs and interests of young people—an understanding achieved by longer and closer cooperation with them, and a method of work which recognizes that *the learner must learn for himself*—the teacher cannot do it for him.

It is true that the core course has been almost everywhere the outstanding field for the application of new attempts at democratic method. This is a result of emphasis on life problems cutting across subject-matter boundaries. But any teacher of any subject may give students a share in planning the work they do together.

A final word may be in order in introducing consideration of the elements of the process of teacher-pupil planning. Not only is this an attempt to apply democracy to the school

room, it is also an attempt to make use of all available knowledge regarding the nature of the learning process. If it is democratic for the student to participate in planning, it is at the same time fully in line with the learning-by-doing school of psychology. It would appear, then, that not only does democracy depend upon education, but likewise education is best when it is most democratic.

It is hoped to emphasize in this chapter the departure from authoritarian practice by extensive illustration from the schools—quoting, wherever possible, the exact words of the teachers who have been on the firing line.

PURPOSES

Purposes of the School

Success with the procedures listed above depends upon a clear conception of the function of the school in a democratic society, and that conception is best arrived at by co-operative planning, as has already been emphasized. The faculty of one school in the Study, by a process of continuous revision and thinking, produced the following statement of purposes. It is a representative illustration of the value schools have found in the cooperative definition of the school's function. Here is a charter for the teacher who would use democratic methods and have the support of all his colleagues!

- I. Education is one continuous process of growth wherein the pattern of the whole, with all its related factors rather than the factors themselves, is important.
- II. Its point of approach is with the individual that he may so discover his own needs and interests and so direct his development that he shall find his place in the social structure and make his contribution to the general good.
- III. Its goal is, therefore, social and is concerned with the social order that shall result when those who comprise it possess both the desire and the capacity for abundant living. Since

we are Americans, this implies all that is involved in the democratic way of life.

- IV. With the belief that we "learn by doing" and that growth, to be permanent, is best achieved through experience, the procedure of the educational process is as follows:
1. the analysis by each individual, on his own maturation level, of his *needs* and his *interests* in accordance with the best obtainable standards of social relationships;
 2. the defining of possible goals on the basis of these *needs* and *interests*;
 3. the participation in experiences that offer opportunity for growth toward the desirable goals;
 4. evaluation in terms of this growth on the part of students, parents and teachers.
- V. The immediate test of such educational theory lies in the use made of acquired skills and knowledges, and in the advance made over any given period toward the chosen goal. The ultimate and real test lies in the ability of the group to understand and determine the goals which will achieve more harmonious, constructive human relationships.¹⁰

Purposes in the Classroom

Obviously, the process of cooperative planning, first among teachers and then with pupils, finds its most practical use in application to the classroom itself. Below is given a comment on this—its values and problems—by the teachers of Tulsa. It is striking to see how well their views of the classroom job accord with the statement of whole-school purposes made 1700 miles away in Los Angeles.

As will be seen, the statements from the Tulsa Report concisely cover the whole matter of classroom techniques as follows:

The necessity for the development of skill in critical thinking, judgment and power of self-direction on the part of individuals within a democratic state is generally recognized. The techniques involved in implementing these democratic procedures in the

¹⁰ Eagle Rock High School, Los Angeles.

training of the youth of the nation are being formulated slowly by means of painstaking effort and experimentation. Tulsa teachers and administrators have been attacking these problems over a period of years. Several factors over which teachers in this system have no control, and to which they must adjust the practice, lower efficiency and often create a feeling of futility when they noticeably limit results. They are: class population consistently over forty; classrooms built to house small groups in a rigid set-up of anchored desks row on row; crowded schedules which prevent cooperative assistance in specialized areas such as foods, etc.; textbooks constructed on the old psychological basis and presenting vocabulary and content difficulties for independent student research.

Setting the Problem:

A survey of the classroom techniques being used by teachers of Tulsa's experimental groups in 1940 proves conclusively that many teachers are becoming adept in individualizing instruction, and are utilizing problem-solving techniques in their classrooms. Pupil-teacher planning is carried on to some extent in all general education groups. It is true that the degree to which it is employed varies greatly from group to group. Following are some of the gradations reported by teachers:

1. A teacher, or group of teachers, set up the problem. Students help to plan the activities to be utilized in arriving at its solution.
2. The cooperating teachers set up several possible problems. Pupils and teachers work together in making the final selection of the problem to be studied.
3. The teachers working with administrators determine an area which certain groups of children shall investigate. Pupils and teachers plan together the problems which shall be studied within the area.
4. Through the recognition of pupil needs and interests as revealed in various classrooms, pupils and teachers may set up problems suitable for certain groups.

In general, in Tulsa junior high schools, teachers and students tend to set up problems within the over-arching theme areas

which have been discussed in the section on curriculum. In the senior high schools certain source units have been set up as desirable at certain grade levels. As a rule, the problems investigated lie within the scope of the units recommended for the year in which they are studied.

In exploring the possibilities of a problem area, teachers most frequently revert to general class discussion and the listing of possible problems. After all suggested problems are listed on the board, the class begins to sort, classify, and eliminate. Here cooperative planning, critical thinking and the exercise of judgment all come into action. After the problem and sub-problems have been set up, many teachers assist students in thinking through the objectives which they hope to attain by means of the study of the problem. These objectives often remain on the board during the entire time that the problem is under consideration, and are modified or amplified in the light of class experience. Other instructors assist students in setting up desirable behavior patterns which they hope to establish.¹¹

In still another school, Altoona, from the eastern part of the United States, comes the account given below of how four teachers within a school, although not aided by general faculty agreement on goals, undertook a similar venture in cooperative planning and work. It is given here because it reaffirms the general principles of the others (although also developed independently from them) and shows the long and continual preparation needed to make changes toward non-dictatorial practice.

It may be profitable to point out that only as the teacher strives to become an artist, to put things together in an ever more meaningful fashion, can *the scientific approach* and *the artistic synthesis* striven for in these schools become important factors in influencing human development. That effort requires enthusiasm and time for its fruition. It requires not only cooperative planning by teachers, but a fine

¹¹ Tulsa Public Schools, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

type of cooperative planning, with those participating flexible in their attitude toward ideas, people, and materials.

A group of four teachers, representing Social Sciences, General Sciences, Home Economics, and English, spent one period per day for a semester, analyzing the common needs of high school sophomores. For this analysis, we worked with three sophomore classes which we were teaching at the time, the General Science Report of the Progressive Education Association plus our own previous experience. The following summer was spent at the Denver Workshop developing source units for use in the sophomore year. After the inauguration of the experiment, we spent one class period per day working and planning together. Being released from our regular teaching program for one period proved invaluable to us. After careful consideration of student needs, the following units for the sophomore year were chosen: Orientation to the new school community, to the student himself, and to education; Family relationships; Consumer problems; Communication; and Conservation of human and natural resources. We realized that any of these units could easily be a year's work and could be studied in different grade levels, but owing to certain conditions in our school and our community, some phases would be particularly adaptable in the tenth grade. In the preparation of these units it was kept clearly in mind that these were not teaching units but units from which the teacher could get suggestions for the development of those parts of the problem which met the needs of the students. Pupil-teacher planning, which played a very important role in this new type of work, gave the teacher the opportunity to set the stage and to be the director but not the dictator. It should be remembered that the source units are only sources of suggestions modified to fit the local situation, and are submitted in the course of pupil-teacher planning when and if the situation calls for them.¹²

TOPICS OF STUDY

The above statement by the Altoona teachers clearly shows how, when purposes have been defined, the next step

¹² Altoona High School, *ibid.*

is to search for topics of study which are in harmony with those purposes. It has been interesting to see, in the schools of the Eight-Year Study, the effect of this search upon both school people and laymen. Over a wide area, they have been stimulated to say something like this: if there is an alternative to the textbook topics, where would it be found but in the life of our society? But not all the problems of that society are equally important. Of primary importance are the significant changes in emphasis brought about by events on the large scale of the national and international scene, as well as in the smaller society of the community itself. In addition to all these external shifts of value, there is the important question: What are the real concerns of the learner? His real concerns are determined only in part by the external world. Highly important is his reaction to his environment. This has variously been called maturity level, learning readiness, need, interest, personal problem, and the like.

Personal and Social Problems

In order to discover and use the personal social problems of students, especially in large schools with large classes, some questionnaire techniques have been found helpful. The value and use of these techniques is described by the Friends' Central School.

It is, of course, a truism to remark that the learning process operates most effectively when students are enthusiastic about their work, when their imagination is aroused, and when they are stimulated by the significance of what they are doing. The exact manner in which instructors motivate interest varies with individual teachers and with the nature of the work.

A personal questionnaire, and the results of the Progressive Education Interest Questionnaires are carefully studied by the guidance counselors and instructors for help in revising the content of courses in the senior Enterprise course. These instruments, for example, were used to facilitate the placement of students into sections which emphasized either a social studies or a lit-

erary approach. Students are consulted about which units of work they will study, and also enjoy the privileges of selecting areas within units for their own special projects.¹³

It is advisable to emphasize once again that concern for the personal interests of children should not and does not mean neglect of the social order of which the child is a part. There can be no more than a temporary separation of the two, for they are inextricably bound up together. That temporary separation is useful for the sake of investigating what may be, and often has been, neglected—the unique nature of the individual who is securing his education.

As a matter of fact, the importance of social forces is thrown into brilliant illumination when individual and group problems and interests are made the focus of study. Such an approach—beginning with the individual, or his peculiar interests—is important because of its social significance. For example, examine the following questions from children (rephrased and recorded by P. B. Diederich).

Pupil Questions

Is there a God? Can I rely on supernatural help when I am in trouble? Will God punish me if I am wicked? If God is good, why is there so much undeserved suffering and unpunished wickedness?

What is the purpose of life? What do I mean when I ask this question? If each person has to set his own purposes in life (to decide what he wants to get out of living), what sorts of purposes are likely to lead to the most intense and enduring satisfactions? What are valid sources of ideals that I can live by? What is "success" in life?

If I can no longer accept the religious beliefs of my parents, what should I do about it? Have it out with them now and break their hearts, or conform externally out of kindness to them, with all the danger of becoming a hypocrite, of being

¹³ Friends' Central School.

found out, and of having to subject my own children to beliefs and practices of which I disapprove?

How can I improve my appearance? How can I reduce weight, clear up my complexion, cure dandruff, eliminate body odors, etc.?

How can a girl who intends to marry do something important in this world besides keeping house and having babies? How can she keep intellectually alive? How do married women who have jobs attend to their homes and babies? What kinds of jobs can a married woman hold? How to prepare for them, and get them?

How should I handle my money? How can I get the most for my money?

What can our generation do

to stop wars

to solve the problems of unemployment

to prevent insanity and other forms of ill health

to make marriage more satisfactory, and lower the divorce rate

to increase the birth rate among genetically superior people

to get for all of us the goods and services we all need and want

to prevent crime

to prevent accidents

to save our natural resources

to extend and use scientific knowledge and scientific method

to make this a more beautiful civilization

to eliminate uncreative drudgery

to eliminate economic insecurity

to eliminate cruelty and selfishness, and to develop more wholesome outlets for aggression

to improve education?¹⁴

All of these questions are full of intense personal feeling. In some, this seems to owe its force to the fact that it has to do particularly with other people—how “I” look, act,

¹⁴ In a document circulated in manuscript at the Denver Workshop, summer of 1939. See also the Interest Questionnaire reporting the interests of 256 children from grades 7 to 12 at the Ohio State University School. It is planographed and copies may be obtained from the school, Columbus, Ohio.

influence, and am accepted by them. But actually, in all, both the personal and the social aspects are present. As an example, take the first, where the answer will seem purely personal at first, but then is seen inevitably to affect social conduct.

Standards for Choosing Topics

If these and other concerns of pupils are to be made topics of study, then it becomes helpful to set up standards by which topics may be chosen from among the wealth of those available. Teachers and teacher groups have always found it advantageous to make their own set of standards before leading student discussion. These standards must fit in with the purposes of the school, of the class as a whole, and with the nature of individual students.

The following set of questions is representative of such standards:

1. Is our activity appropriate for the maturity level of the group?
2. Does it lead on and extend the horizons of the members of the group?
3. Does it provide opportunities for developing intelligent scientific attitudes?
4. Does it provide for individual initiative?
5. Does it provide for group activities?
6. Does it encourage the use of a large variety of materials for expression—talking, writing, painting, modeling, dramatizing, singing, dancing, and so forth?
7. Does it bring to the fore fundamental social issues that are significant to the members of the group?
8. Do we enjoy it?

With such questions in mind, with sufficient enthusiasm and time, it is scarcely too much to say that any classroom can be made a place of intellectual adventure and human achievement.

One of the best reasons for basing courses on problems which are real to pupils is that the integration of living and growth is thus made easier than by the kind of subject-matter treatment which marks off artificial boundaries and stops short of the whole problem.

An important aspect of classroom work which is designed to aid students in solving real life problems rather than arriving at the "correct" answers to imaginary ones, is emphasized by a mathematics teacher, head of his department, as follows:

An implication of the teaching for problem-solving is that the pupils must be presented with whole problems. Situations which are real to them and in which they can find a valid interest must become at least part of the teaching material. It is only through a chance to consider such problems that students will be able to practice all steps of the problem-solving technique in the mathematics classroom.¹⁵

Guidance

The desirability of "wholeness," of an integrated experience in learning to meet problems, brings to the fore the matter of guidance. Guidance and counseling have been demanded, on occasion, by the dispersed and chopped-up nature of the curriculum (subject divisions) and by the school day (periods and bells to start and stop thinking about a problem). Whether a need for integration comes from the school or outside the school, however, there is need for intelligent and sympathetic guidance. When classroom practice is based on the fullest contribution from each person, guidance takes place throughout the school day. It may and does lead to remedial work which is *functional in the mind of the learner*, to stimulating the average student, and to socializing the superior student who must help work for the good of all. Classroom practice of that sort leads to a concept of discipline imposed by the task itself rather than

¹⁵ John Burroughs School, *ibid.*

by teacher dictation; and makes for much easier revelation by the student and recognition by the teacher of maturity levels, the different tempo at which individuals do their best work; and the need for periods of relaxation or lying fallow. Above all, close personal acquaintance fosters good classroom practice by making teachers aware of these and even deeper psychological needs of their pupils. Thus it leads to the kinds of guidance described by the Ohio State University School:

Teacher as Counselor

Meanwhile, in core groups and in all working situations, teachers were helping children to meet not only their academic but also their personal problems. Out of such experiences evolved the present system in which a counselor is designated for each grade. His responsibilities are not defined in detail, but in practice certain ones are accepted. He has general supervision of the making of students' programs and of later changes. He is chairman of all teachers of his grade group when meetings are needed to discuss problems of curriculum or children. He has general responsibility for the children in the grade, though the faculty still believes counseling is a part of every teacher's responsibility, and all share in guidance. An exact division of responsibilities between administration, grade counselors, and other teachers has not been made. Perhaps it would be undesirable, even if possible.

As teachers have become more sensitive to the personalities in their classes, as well as to the cultural heritage of their specialized areas, a change has taken place in the relationship between pupils and teachers. The role of the teacher has changed from guide of a conducted tour to guide of a group of explorers.¹⁶

This effort to conceive the teacher-pupil relationship as a human acquaintanceship rather than an impersonal or master specialist-apprentice one, has opened great new vistas even

¹⁶ University School of The Ohio State University, *ibid.*

to schools where guidance specialists have long been employed. In Los Angeles, for example, the teachers of the Eagle Rock High School, who developed the statement of school philosophy given on pages 120-21, state:

*Guidance and the Curriculum are Inseparable
in the New Program of Studies*

Guidance is no longer considered to be the sole responsibility of the counselor. Guidance and teaching have been steadily drawing together. In some schools, several guidance "centers" are designated, usually core-curriculum classes. The guidance-center teachers provide special opportunities, free from the burden of traditional subject-matter requirements, in which the learner's interests, problems and needs receive primary attention and serve as guides for learning experiences and activities.

In some instances the teacher's free period is given to individual conferences. In others the conference period prior to the opening of school is used for guidance purposes.

Orientation units in grades 7, 9, 10 and 12 are valuable guidance opportunities.¹⁷

METHODS OF WORK ON TOPICS

Once purposes and topics are established, even tentatively, it becomes clear that certain methods of work are demanded. When the purpose of classroom work is to aid students in meeting their life problems in a democracy, such an approach is suggested as the following reported by a social studies teacher at Wisconsin High School:

Problems Approach

1. Problem-solving procedure.
2. Spontaneous-Anonymous approach: In this technique the members of the class are confronted with a problem which has arisen in the group. No time is given for discussion. All responses are written on anonymous slips of paper. The teacher writes his reactions also—anononymously. All these

¹⁷ Eagle Rock High School, *ibid.*

reactions are copied by a committee and mimeographed for class distribution. They constitute the raw data for discussion. They include many significant facts, notions, preconceptions, errors, prejudices, half-truths, etc. These data are in the nature of an anonymous pre-test and may be torn to pieces as facts are found, filtered, faced, and followed. No personalities enter into the discussions here—you may slay the pet notions of your dearest friend or those of the teacher without recrimination or remorse. Such an exercise often brings the comment (after a problem has been thoroughly canvassed), “and look at what we didn’t know or knew what wasn’t so before we attacked this problem.”

3. Democratic-Discussion technique. Modified parliamentary.
4. Community-Research-Survey-Excursions.
5. Speaker-Panel-Open-Forum approach.
6. Wide reading in newspapers—magazines—pamphlets—books.
7. Personal-social conferences on interests, needs, capacities, procedures, adjustments, time-budgeting, philosophies, etc.
8. Movie-radio-socialized discussion. As for radio programs: “Town Meeting of the Air.”
9. Controversial questions were the key to the course.
10. Shared reading through cooperative purchase of assorted magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, books, etc.

Failures, Conflicts, Unsolved Problems

1. Lack of *whole* faculty cooperation and participation—segregation—back-biting—invidious comparison—recrimination.
2. Much over-lap (although this is not an unmixed evil).
3. Administrative machinery inadequate—not enough interchange and conference.
4. Difficulty in getting “conservative” side represented among speakers on controversial issues.
5. Difficulties in measuring progress in intangibles.
6. Problem of reading materials on secondary level—documents erudite—vocabulary complex and legalistic oftentimes—much material assumes adequate background, etc. (partially over-

come by considerable class-committee-teacher mimeographing).

7. Coming from college-centered homes, these youngsters at first unduly loved their chains—traditional methods (but came to appreciate, respect, and fight for more and more freedom).
8. Scheduling of hours not flexible enough—although better than traditional curriculum.
9. Equipment very inadequate or outmoded.
10. Integrating factors (aside from philosophy of life) are not easily brought to bear.
11. Time element planned for 4 hours weekly—cut in half very soon.

Steps in the Process of Study

- I. Feel the need.
- II. Define your terms.
- III. Find the facts (RESEARCH):
 1. *Suspend judgment*: Don't embarrass yourself by jumping at conclusions right away, and then trying to prove that your prejudice (pre-judgment) is a solution.
 2. Beware of emotional stereotypes, hearsay, and mere opinions. (That Mr. So and So says this or that may be a *fact*, but what he says may be mere *opinion* or assumption—and on most controversial questions *both* sides can muster an imposing list of wise men and fools.)
 3. Indicate both *sources* and *dates*.
 4. Collect *all* the facts you can find on *all* sides. (Don't build your house upon sand—half truths can be worse than lies.)
- IV. Filter the facts (ANALYSIS):
 5. Categorize them "Pro" and "Con" or otherwise.
 6. Separate the wheat from the chaff (all facts are not of equal importance or weight in their bearing upon the problem).
 7. Star (*) those which in your judgment contain the key to the situation.

8. Watch yourself here! There's a big temptation to juggle the facts and figures to get a line-up which will arrive at the hoped-for answer to fit your bias.

V. Face the facts (ATTITUDE):

9. What (specifically) do your facts indicate?
10. Your mind is akin to a parachute—a liability if it doesn't open.
11. Intellectual honesty abhors wishful thinking.
12. Can you "take it"? Or will you rationalize the conclusion away (kid yourself)?
13. Some minds are so "open" that the cavity reaches top and bottom, and ideas fall right through.

VI. Follow the facts (ACTION):

14. When you have found, filtered and faced the facts, do something about them! Action speaks louder than words.
15. Be sure you're right, then go ahead: Buy or boycott.
16. Give or withhold moral support.
17. Speak or write pro and con.
18. Use every honorable means to sustain truth and make justice triumph.
19. Be patient with those who disagree with you. They may know as little about it as you did when you started your research.
20. Keep up to date—facts get tarnished with age—CHANGES OCCUR DAILY.¹⁸

As indicated so well in this outline, the result of study should be action. Yet so long and strong has been the divorce of school life from other life, and so effective the elimination of young people from responsibility in our city and machine civilization, that we are now forced to create very consciously and artificially the beginnings of such responsibility and such relationships as are desperately needed. From one of the more conservative schools in the Study, for example, comes the following record of a new effort at community relationships:

¹⁸ Wisconsin High School, *ibid.*

Cooperation of School and Community

A cooperative committee has recently come into being, with membership representing parents, faculty, alumni, administration, and the school committee, which aims, as it gradually gains experience, to promote and extend the interests of the school which may be called religious or spiritual. This committee sent a questionnaire last May to all of the families represented in the school, inquiring in some detail what value parents attach to the various types of instruction or contributing phases of school life, and inviting suggestions. About 140 replies, most of them the joint answers of two parents, are now being studied by the committee. The answers seem to value most of all the spiritual qualities in the school atmosphere, including friendliness, tolerance, integrity of scholarship, sympathy and imagination in the teaching, the spirit of sharing and of fairness in the conduct of school activities. The program of Bible Study, the Friends' meeting, and the home and church association also were recognized. It is hoped that this step and subsequent ones may count in drawing the school community more closely together on what should be its deepest and most significant level.¹⁹

In confirmation of this trend in the core or life-problems curriculum, these words on the way it is developing in Los Angeles are pertinent:

The Core Curriculum is Closely Related to Life

Recent modifications of the core curriculum indicate a trend toward pupil experiences which are designed to meet important life needs and which relate to significant areas of living or problems of life. Less emphasis is being placed upon far removed and historic incidents, while more attention is being given to such matters as current problems of the home, personality and personal relationships, physical and mental health, community conditions and activities, personal-social relationships, recreation, reflective thinking, orientation to the new school, safety, and courtesy.

¹⁹ Germantown Friends School, *ibid.*

Cooperative teacher planning makes it easy and natural for the school to deal directly with problems of vital concern to pupils and to the community.

Traditional content is giving way before surveys of pupil interests, of community needs, of activities carried out in local communities.

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The value of the community as a vast reservoir of social, cultural, vocational, economic, industrial, and recreational resources is steadily gaining the attention of secondary education in California. In Los Angeles alone more than 8,000 secondary students have taken trips into the community during the past year to study first-hand the life and activities of their community. This practice is steadily growing in secondary schools throughout the city. The study of community resources is an established part of the curriculum in our schools where it is looked upon as an excellent laboratory for functionalizing and vitalizing secondary education. In Los Angeles, schools are giving attention to a program of studies including problems and areas of community living which serve as a common core of experiences to be pursued by all pupils. It is reasonable to expect that these experiences will help to make the transition to adult community living a natural social process. It seems desirable to expect the development of a genuine social consciousness to grow out of a study of significant fields of community activities by the pupil. His experience in the home, the church, the school, his observations of vocational pursuits and governmental controls have prepared him for serious consideration of problems involved in community relationships and responsibilities.²⁰

Among the most promising of all the new methods of community study is that of trips. Outstanding use of this means of first-hand study is to be found at Fieldston and Dalton and Lincoln schools, as well as in the public schools already mentioned.

At Lincoln, where college preparatory work has led to

²⁰ Eagle Rock High School, *ibid.*

much "book larnin'," for example, the faculty reports on the growing use of trips as follows:

Now practically the entire high school division accepts the use of the community as part of the curriculum of the school. All-morning trips have become common; all-day trips are frequently planned. A week-end proved necessary for senior high school students to study certain geological phenomena beyond Manhattan. The longer time proved equally valuable for glimpses of rural economy. Eight days at the height of the congressional fight in Washington were barely enough to introduce juniors and seniors to certain aspects of our Federal Government. A week's trip proved an effective experience for twenty-five ninth graders in New England country life in the spring; eight days were used when fifty ninth graders participated in farm activities as the Berkshire farmers prepared for the winter. Eleven days were spent by fifty twelfth graders traveling nineteen hundred miles to study the socio-economic planning of the Tennessee Valley Authority and of certain government and cooperative enterprises in Georgia, North Carolina, and Maryland. About the same length of time permitted an industrial study in the bituminous coal fields of West Virginia. In all these recent enterprises, as much participation as possible has been included with observation.

Evaluation instruments have been, and still are, as inadequate as the available techniques and materials for teaching, but they are improving together. One ten-day study trip for which especially careful evaluation was planned (according to the best psychological advice and resources available through the Aikin Commission) resulted in as much intellectual growth in certain important areas as is ordinarily recorded for two years. In all the Lincoln School study outside of classrooms, evidences of learning and genuine growth of personality have piled up to significant proportions.

Knowledge that carries with it the power to think soundly, and the will to act upon thought, can only come from first-hand experience in the environment which touches the students personally. An environment bounded by books and classroom study must necessarily be seriously limited; it still remains limited with

the inclusion of most homes and home communities. Children should be helped during sensitive early years to learn of the larger economic, social, political, religious, and cultural environments. They should be helped especially to see how those environments are woven together, and how, as individuals, they can fit into the pattern.²¹

With the problems approach outline from Wisconsin and the references to use of community relations and resources, the whole subject of materials of study—of what has historically been called “content”—is brought to attention. Our major contention in regard to this matter is that in finding a center for class work in the actual problems of human beings today, the *use* of content material has been rediscovered. It is now realized by increasing numbers of teachers that subject matter is properly a means to an end, rather than an end in itself.

What Happens to Special Fields and Skills?

This view of subject matter affects the whole conduct of the classroom. It makes ideas and relationships take their rightful paramount place. It makes the skills and knowledge of specialized work lead to broad relationships of a specialized field to all of life. This is excellently illustrated by the comments of Walter V. Kaulfers after a survey of foreign language teaching in the schools of the Study.

It seems to me that the choice of a unifying theme and frame of reference . . . is most essential if literature is to be read understandingly and with a purpose. Great literature was never written merely to illustrate language. Unless foreign language teaching is definitely guided in some direction as the foregoing, it is inevitable that the study of literature will remain a mere linguistic exercise or a mere ride upon the “merry-go-round”. . . .

Before closing this letter I should like to call attention to the one or two practices in foreign language teaching which are

²¹ “Community as Material for Study,” Lincoln School, *ibid.*

almost universal among the schools, and seem to me particularly inefficient. . . .

From surveying foreign language teaching in the various schools, I gained the impression that they are using much the same method that an automobile salesman might use in teaching a novice to drive a car by showing him the parts of an automobile scattered on the floor of a garage. It is not difficult to see that the mere ability to name the inside parts of an automobile and to piece individual parts together does not necessarily have much connection with actual ability to drive the car economically, speedily, or safely. Foreign language teaching in the thirty schools is very much on the par with the foregoing illustration. I think it is desirable to stress the fact that the part has no significance except in relation to the whole, and that this means starting always with language as a vehicle for communication. I think I demonstrated the practicability of this in conducting demonstration lessons during the very first day of work in a foreign language. For example, we dealt in Spanish in the demonstration lesson with the international highway of the Pacific and its contemporary effect upon us and the Americas. This lesson involved not only information, but also vocabulary building, reading, and oral discussion in terms of a fairly meaningful frame of reference considering the maturity level of the pupils.

To illustrate how usage can be handled when a functional approach to language is used, may I indicate what would be done in the interests of accuracy of pronunciation in following up such a lesson as the foregoing? We would, under no circumstances, interrupt any student in his efforts to speak Spanish except to help him should he "get stuck." However, we should observe carefully what difficulties the students are having in pronouncing the language. Then, after the discussion of the material as a body of experience has been enjoyed and assimilated, we might give the students a little special help on the sounds which particularly handicap them. For example, we might say to the group, "I notice that some of us feel a little uncomfortable and uncertain in the pronunciation of the sound *j*. I think I can help you by means of this little exercise. Suppose we take just a few

minutes to pronounce the following words. Then if you have any questions will you please feel free to ask them?"

It should be noted, too, that generalized work leads in turn to intensive specialization as indicated earlier in the chapter.

The Arts

One of the most fruitful new developments from the great discovery of the usefulness of subject matter in solving present-day problems has been the vastly increased use of many materials of learning and expression (such as are found in the arts), a realization that books and lectures are only part of the educational resources at everyone's command.

In the Tower Hill assemblies, previously noted, a wide use of sources as well as a dramatic form of expression is to be found.

An example of the way these student-planned assemblies develop at Tower Hill is that of a recent Armistice Day assembly. As it is a tradition that the seniors take responsibility for this assembly, the pupils concerned discussed with their teachers of history and English those social and political changes resulting from the World War which were of greatest significance. In further discussions with teachers of dramatics, art, and music, techniques of presentation were considered. It was decided that the "Living Newspaper" technique of the Federal Theatre would be most effective and appropriate. Then for six weeks, the class made a careful study of the causes of the war, together with some of the problems that have emerged during the post-war period. Before the actual script was written, a great deal of careful research was carried out. Historical backgrounds, state papers, propaganda devices, and current literature, both American and European were studied. The results of individual reading were reported to the class, discussed, evaluated, and then digested to provide suitable materials for the dramatic presentation. The project, from beginning to end, provided the participants with

the most valuable experiences in individual responsibility and group cooperation. Each contributed and all benefited. The ultimate production gave the student audience a wealth of background material, and was a most effective means of developing social sensitivity.

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One of the intangible elements of assemblies, but one of the most important, is the building up of a spirit that the students will always come through with flying colors. This is one of the most valuable outcomes of the assumption of full responsibility by the students. Such confidence has often acted in a most striking way to carry through a student who is lacking in self-assurance, or who sometimes fails to carry out his responsibilities under other circumstances. This suggests that the assembly has much to offer in the matter of mental hygiene.²²

The dramatic arts provide rich materials for study and expression. Use of the radio and the motion picture is challenging to students who have grown up in a world where these forms for conveying ideas are dominant. As an example of how a school-made movie can minister to education, the Tulsa schools report as follows:

Class Made Movie:

A most successful committee project was developed in Will Rogers High School. A pupil account follows:

"At the first of school this year we were starting a new school, a new class, and we were facing, to a certain extent, new problems. We didn't have material for all the possible subjects we might possibly be interested in studying. We narrowed the field down until we decided to study the conservation of our natural resources. The next problem was how to study this problem so that the greatest good could be derived from it for all concerned.

"We not only wanted to be made aware of the problems and the need for conservation, but we also wanted to make others aware of this need. Not in some remote part of the United States,

²² Tower Hill School, *ibid.*

but right here in our own community. Knowing that people are more impressed by what they actually see than what they read or hear, we decided to make a movie of conservation problems in the community in and around Tulsa.

"We decided that we could make this movie more efficiently if we divided into committees and explored the different phases of conservation. We formed six committees, and every member of the class was on one of these committees. These covered the details of conservation of soil, water conservation, flood control, wild life conservation, conservation of minerals, and conservation of our forests.

"Before we actually started work in our committees, we set up behavior patterns, or changes we wanted brought about in our personal attitudes and skills by this study. These behavior patterns included learning to work together in groups with maximum of efficiency, and minimum of waste of time and effort. We wanted to learn cooperation in our work with each other; more about the problems facing our community. All these behavior patterns were formed with the idea of making us better students, and more responsible people.

"We set up the committees, and each committee thoroughly explored the particular phase of conservation it was studying. The different committees with ordinary still cameras took pictures of work being done in the field of conservation, and the work needing to be done. The findings of the committees were presented to the class in the form of reports.

"Then from the pictures, and the knowledge we gained by field trips and reading material (much of which we sent for, Government departments, etc.), the several committees formed a tentative scenario, or working schedule for their committees. From these smaller scenarios the final scenario was made by a special committee formed for that purpose. We followed that in the actual shooting of the movie.

"Part of the movie was 'shot' during class time, and part on week ends. We took movies at the Grand River Dam, Lake Spavinaw, the C. C. C. camp at Broken Arrow, Mohawk Park, and many other places."²³

²³ Tulsa Public Schools.

In addition to the dramatic arts, all the resources of painting, music, modeling, carpentry, metal work, and the home arts are being explored. The Tulsa report continues, with a representative statement on this:

Use of Art Forms

The use of the arts in clarifying ideas and expressing emotion is increasing. Which creative experiences have been of most value it is hard to say. For example, it was reported that one group built a doll house and another constructed a usable table from orange crates. Which activity had the greater value for the boys and girls participating?

To provide time and opportunity for the construction of puppet shows, development of dramatizations, painting of murals, and other creative activities is another major problem for classroom teachers. Several schemes have been worked out by various groups. In one building teachers send pupils to the shops from academic classes to work on special projects. Art materials are supplied in the classrooms in that school. In another building the art and music specialists work closely with a group of teachers in planning and fostering the art and music implications in the problems under consideration by the group. There is little or no correlation with work done in the shops in that building. In some places the art and construction projects which pupils have had the creative urge to do, have been the result of independent effort outside of school because there was no opportunity provided for these activities in school.²⁴

The Eagle Rock High School Report summarizes its view of the role of the arts thus:

The Fine and Practical Arts assume a new role
in secondary education

It is increasingly clear that the arts are destined to become more closely related to the general education program with the passing of time. Schools are scheduling an increasing number of art and music teachers to work with core teachers. Art is losing its early

²⁴ *Ibid.*

stages of sophistication and is being brought to bear upon practical every-day situations which heretofore were seldom considered as having art possibilities. Music, too, is playing a new role in present-day education.²⁵

In dealing with such new topics and new methods and new materials of study, some teachers are fearful lest skills be neglected—reading skill, for example. The Tulsa report mentions the following findings of its survey of practice:

Use of the Skills

In the solution of the problem and in the presentation of data, experimental techniques which stress individual learnings are widely used in Tulsa. After the problem and sub-problems have been set up, research in special interest areas is carried on by committees of students. In some instances, a pupil who has an individual problem works alone. Presentation of the solution of the problem is generally in the form of some type of report.

In classrooms where these techniques predominate, radical changes are noticeable. Each child is no longer required to know everything. Each one is expected to get to the heart of the phase of the total problem which interests him most. In solving his problem he is encouraged to use the medium best suited to his needs. He is very likely to try to read rather widely. He may explore his community and discuss his problem with his elders. He may draw diagrams, or build models to make his meaning clear or to satisfy his urge to create.

In the carrying out of these procedures the teacher faces many difficulties. The pupil must be counseled so that his problem will be practical and worthwhile for him. The teacher must ask herself such questions as:

1. How well does the student read?
2. Is he able to avail himself of library resources?
3. Is the material at hand for the solution of his problem?
4. If he does not read well, what can be done to make it possible for him to do the piece of work that he wants to do?
5. How effective are his powers of self-direction?

²⁵ Eagle Rock High School, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

6. How may his interest in this problem be capitalized so that it may be a medium for improving his skills?

Often the whole class needs instruction in some specialized technique. For example, they may not know how to use the *Readers Guide*, and yet need to use it at this time. The entire class will be given instruction and practice in the use of the *Guide*. Proficiency in the use of the skill is not taught as an end in itself, but as a means of facilitating the solving of the problem. To make drill effective and yet not weaken the interest in the solution of the problem is one of the most difficult devices of the new procedure, and one for which no one here has found a conclusive answer.²⁶

The materials of the arts and the community as a whole, the soil itself, and the people who live on it are becoming the textbooks of the schools as they have always been of people as a whole. These materials are much used in experimental classes: books, magazines, newspapers, oral reports, lectures, interviews, radio, movies; drawings, paintings, photos, diagrams, graphs; music of all kinds—singing, instrumental, victrola records, etc.; constructions—in wood, metal, paper, beaver-board, cardboard, etc.; drama—full length and short plays by professional writers and by students, dramatized interviews, radio skits; dance and dance pantomime; sculpture and modelling; cloth, buttons, food, furniture, wallpaper—the materials of home economics; soil and vegetation; animals; trips; and people.

Records and Evaluation

Pre-eminent among the values of classroom practice based on students' real problems is that the student thus knows the purpose of what he is doing from the start, can intelligently evaluate himself, and can understand the evaluations made by others.

The little child who sang "Gladly, the Cross-Eyed Bear" so sweetly and devoutly in Sunday school class, had nothing

²⁶ Tulsa Public Schools, *ibid.*

on students who are working for a vague purpose such as "preparation for when you get out in life." The student knows he is already alive, even if the teacher does not. The additional tragedy is, that even when teacher and students have planned together, tests and records are too often irrelevant to their purpose. Sometimes the irrelevance is due to the teacher's failure to think of evaluation as part of the whole process of learning. More often it is due to a lack of integration between "higher-ups" and the teacher. For example, a teacher of science who was creating a general science course and stressing the power to define and solve problems by experimental methods and the power to understand large generalizations important in the fields of science, was severely judged by patrons and administration when three of his students did poor work on a Harvard scholarship test which asked for specific content stereotypes. In another case, students in experimental core groups were forced to take city-wide tests covering content material that was part of traditional courses but not at all germane to the work they had done along with a great deal of other content material. So it goes with "minimum essentials" that are not essential to a particular group or grade, and with state-wide testing programs which are based on general assumptions that may have been sound when they were set up but which now do not apply to particular instances.

With democratic and truly educational purposes must go a program of records and evaluation, consonant with them, made with full cognizance of the need for study which is real to students.

The Los Angeles system as a whole has this to say:

A Broader Basis for Evaluation is Established.

Evaluation techniques are being modified to include a larger number of teachers and administrators than heretofore. Through grade and committee meetings, teachers are becoming more

cognizant of the values and methods of the new evaluation procedures.

Old type standardized pencil and paper tests are being largely supplanted by instruments that are prepared by local faculties working with psychologists and other available evaluation experts. These instruments are constructed and modified from time to time in accordance with local pupil needs and in accordance with the school's education philosophy. Evidences of pupil growth in many traits (in addition to scholarship) are also being sought. These data are made available for all interested teachers, and are used in teaching and guidance situations. Subjective evidences such as teacher observations, pupil written reports about himself and his choice of courses and school activities, self-rating scales, interviews with counselors, and the like are being used to supplement objective data.²⁷

It may be of special interest to illustrate three of the last-named forms of evaluation which are being developed along with the new emphasis on pupil problems and participation.

Teacher Observations

The first illustration deals with teacher observations. It comes from the city of Des Moines, where a group of mal-adjusted boys at West Junior High School were given the opportunity to participate in planning their own work and to use a wide variety of materials of a non-verbal sort. At the end of a year, says the Des Moines report,

. . . the teachers believe that these boys have had experiences which will make them better citizens along the following lines: (1) they have improved in their attitudes toward organized authority, not on account of having found this authority a stern relentless Nemesis for the evil-doer, but because they believe that their teachers are trying to understand them; (2) they are happier in their daily associations in the group and around the school than they were when the class was organized; (3) they have

²⁷ Eagle Rock High School, *ibid.*

taken part in planning many activities which they felt were important, and to the extent of their capabilities, have carried out some of the plans to a successful conclusion; (4) they have gained the feeling for human life in other parts of the world through their daily discussion of news reports and radio broadcasts and have learned to look for facts to use in interpreting these reports; (5) they have experienced using what resources they have at hand to gain an end without depending on materials seemingly necessary, but not furnished through the regular channels.²⁸

These observations were based on careful records, and they deal with personality traits which once were considered scarcely important enough for the school record. This is convincing evidence of change in the attitude of teachers toward their pupils and their objectives.

Student Evaluation

The second illustration is an example of a self-evaluation technique, not only used by but also designed by students themselves. It comes from a mid-western high school and is given in full on the following pages.

SELF-EVALUATION BLANK MADE BY PUPILS IN TENTH GRADE—NEW CURRICULUM COURSE²⁹

Last fall we, as a group, set up certain goals to try to attain in English this year, and the types of experience through which we thought they might be reached. In answering the following questions, I shall honestly and frankly try to evaluate my own progress toward these desired ends.

A. Reading

Through the reading of books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, etc., to what degree have I progressed toward the following goals? What specific examples can I give on each one?

²⁸ Des Moines Schools, *ibid.*

²⁹ Shaker High School.

Examples

(Space for writing cut down
in this sample.)

- | | |
|--|-------|
| 1. Knowledge | |
| 2. Pleasure | |
| 3. Broader interests | |
| 4. Greater discrimination | |
| 5. An increased vocabulary | |
| 6. An acquaintance with more varied
types of literature | |

B. Writing

Through the writing of themes, essays, book reports, letters, stories, poetry, summaries, etc., to what degree have I progressed toward the following goals? What specific examples can I give on each one?

Examples

- | | |
|--|-------|
| 1. Ability to write correctly | |
| 2. Ability to write clearly | |
| 3. Ability to organize ideas | |
| 4. Neatness and attractiveness of
arrangement | |

C. Speaking

Through conversation, public speaking, broadcasting, discussion, oral reading, story telling, and dramatics, to what extent have I achieved the following goals? What specific examples can I give on each one?

Examples

- | | |
|--|-------|
| 1. Poise | |
| 2. Ability to speak correctly | |
| 3. Ability to speak clearly
(enunciation and pitch) | |
| 4. Logical organization of thought | |

D. Listening

Through listening to class discussion, the radio, music, conversation, assemblies, plays, recitations, etc., to what extent

have I progressed toward the following goals? What specific examples can I give on each one?

Examples

- | | |
|---|-------|
| 1. Knowledge | |
| 2. Courtesy | |
| 3. Ability to follow the thought of others | |
| 4. Tolerance—respect for opinions of others | |

It may be objected that this self-evaluation blank is too conventional in most respects. However, it is a distinct departure in being pupil-made and pupil-administered.

*Reports Written
by Students*

Despite their general tendency to extreme conservatism, students, as well as teachers, are keenly interested in the techniques of education when they are invited to think about all phases of their work, to plan, and to make the fullest use of their interests and all available resources.

After a year's study of home and family problems, members of a seventh-grade class wrote several scores of evaluative comments from which are given, as representative, the statements below.

Taught me how to live with my family better and get along at home and school.

We have learned a good deal by having all the children put their opinions in. For instance, someone told about how he got along with his little brother. My little brother and I used to quarrel about five times a day. Now it is only two or three.

How much better it is to work together than alone.

Some classes have seemed methodical, but when we have our family, there is something new every day.

I like the way the teachers seem to get down to earth.

I have learned to work on committees, and that I can't always have my own way.

I really think this year has been one of the best school years I ever had. I have learned how to live with other people much better. I think that this is just as good as any amount of grammar or math. You have to be able to get along with people before your math or spelling will do you much good.

It has not seemed like school at all, but rather like the most interesting club I have ever heard of . . . The Carters³⁰ have grown so real that I dread leaving them as I would a dear friend. The family we have studied has been like a foundation upon which will be built a structure as solid as Gibraltar . . . I am sure I am much richer in mind and ability than I was a year ago.

I have learned the value of money and how to budget my allowance.

I have learned to be a better judge of quality and a better shopper. I have learned to save my money.

If it hadn't been for our family, I would still be asking mother for money whenever I wanted it.

Having chairmen helps us to develop leadership.

Studying our own weaknesses made us want to try to correct them.

Being on a committee or a chairman teaches us responsibility.

Reporting on committees helped me to learn to talk without being nervous.

Can interpret problems better.³¹

It has seemed fitting, for two reasons, to conclude the section on records and evaluation with these statements by twelve-year-old children. It is important to know the things these children value in their school experience. It is evident that even in their first attempt they were able to estimate their progress in terms of valid educational purposes.

SUMMARY

In summarizing this chapter on classroom practice, it may be interesting to return to the two opposed views set forth at

³⁰ An imaginary family created by the children, who endowed it with their own family problems.

³¹ Tulsa Public Schools.

the beginning. One was characterized as authoritarian. It might have been more accurate, as well as kinder, to describe it as the "come and get it" theory of education.

"Come and get it!"

These words stand for a concept of food on the table—if you want to eat, eat. They could also very well stand for an attitude toward education held by many college and secondary school people.

Opposed to this concept is another, represented by the words of a great painter and teacher of painting, Hans Hofmann. He said:

"I must be a psychologist as well as a painter. Each student is a part of my study. Whatever I say and do, whether it is short and sharp, or painstaking explanation, or words of flattering encouragement, must be sensitively adjusted to the state of mind of the individual with whom I am dealing."

Such realizations as the following have made great changes in the classroom practices of teachers:

that democracy is a way of life which cannot be achieved without education and means in harmony with it. It cannot be imposed;

that learning is a matter of individual interest, capacity, and opportunity;

that content material is important to student and teacher as a means to an end;

that development of living beings is dynamic, and that evaluation must therefore be in terms not of static "measurement" but in terms of progress toward a goal.

Some time ago, when fascism was the greatest threat to democracy and national socialism was just beginning to rear its head, a wise student of economics made the following distinction between authoritarianism and democracy. "It is democracy," he said, "if all those concerned in a decision have an opportunity to share in making it."

In the classroom, this has brought about a new kind of

planning between teachers—a planning that sets the stage for the maximum participation of pupils in making decisions about their school work. The success of cooperative teacher planning and that of pupil planning has revealed new worlds of possibility, and still greater vistas of opportunity are being opened by the small beginnings that have been made in including parents and other members of the community in educational thinking.

Upset by any change, and most of all by changes that take away prestige from straight subject-matter mastery, some educators and others have quoted with much glee the remark of the child who said to the teacher, “Do we have to do what we want to today?” It is a fact that children and grown-ups alike find it simpler and easier to do what they are told than to exercise their brains in order to make a choice. But while this is easier, there is little evidence to show that it is the most educative experience. As a matter of fact, our whole experience of life, in and out of school, offers countless examples of the heartbreak and failure that come from unintelligent follow-the-leader behavior, or poorly thought out choices.

Regret for mis-mating in marriage; unhappy business partners; town councils and political officers who are vague, incompetent, narrow in vision, judges who wear horns and bellow, teachers who go to God a fraction rather than a whole number, families in which there is constant strife between parents and between parents and children; farmers and business men who go bankrupt; purchasers who cannot meet the obligations of installment buying—all these and a host of others give eloquent testimony to the unhappy result of poor decisions.

Choices, then, can be all-important. Yet the schools have for a long time reduced to a minimum the opportunities for students to make choices, and for a long time teachers have

made the choices *for* their pupils on the basis of incomplete data.

In view of the fact that no one can make a perfect choice, some people say, "What's the use?" But in response to them it can be shown from the schools of the Eight-Year Study that there is a great deal of use. By making choices students have increased their ability to make intelligent decisions. They have established confidence in their ability to choose a course of action. This self-confidence is the result of school experience in taking responsibility for decisions in matters of vital concern to them.

Three basic kinds of purpose characterize the classroom practices of good teachers who are pioneers.

First, they are attempting to achieve the values for which democracy was created—to foster the maximum development of human personality. In this attempt there can be no thought of separating the individual from the group. Therefore, the second purpose: to make education realistic in terms of our society—its nature, its demands, its opportunities. Third, as professional workers, they efficiently seek the accomplishment of these two purposes—by continuous study and use of all available knowledge regarding the nature of learning—both in general and as it applies to each individual and group.

Already the process of planning with pupils has been described in sufficient detail to indicate how these three purposes are served. But there is danger of setting up even so flexible a plan and then reducing it to dull, lifeless institutionalism. That is what happens when a formula in human relations is treated as if it were a chemical formula. This one must always be treated as a formula in relativity—one in which every factor is variable.

It has seemed best to present such a plan in its entirety because each classroom process *ought* to be a part of a coherent whole. But in order to give every teacher—whatever his

present practice and beliefs—something to shoot at, to ponder over, to apply, to use as a brain-tickler, this chapter will now offer a check list of questions regarding classroom practice. The list is made up from observation of developments in the Eight-Year Study. Any teacher in any field in any school might be interested in evaluating his practice by it.

Good Democratic Classroom Practice

A Check List

1. Do all concerned participate in planning
 - a. purpose
 - b. topics
 - c. materials
 - d. methods
 - e. formulation and presentation of results
 - f. evaluation and new planning?
2. Are records and evaluation based on
 - a. purposes real and important to the learner
 - b. democratic purposes
 - c. a dynamic concept of growth (do the records and evaluations stimulate rather than hinder growth?)
 - d. development of self-evaluation
 - e. individual powers as well as group achievement?
3. Are individual differences taken into account in dealing with
 - a. remedial needs
 - b. average work
 - c. superior work
 - d. guidance
 - e. discipline
 - f. maturity level
 - g. plans for personal acquaintance of teacher and pupils?
4. Are social forces used to educational advantage in
 - a. individual development
 - b. small-group work

- c. large-group work
 - d. choosing problems for study (individual up to world problems)
 - e. using a wide range of materials of learning and expression, with special recognition of those which are new in our time
 - f. developing participation of young people in community affairs
 - g. discipline
 - h. conflicts between home and school
 - i. sex and other deep tensions
 - j. coordination of school and other social agencies
 - k. special attention to controversial issues?
5. Is content used as a means rather than an end
- a. in solving specialized problems which should lead the learner to see broad relationships
 - b. in solving large general problems in which the learner can develop specialized interests
 - c. by developing new and fitting approaches to learning—experimental use of materials?
6. Is the teacher an artist at
- a. asking questions
 - b. creating a classroom atmosphere favorable to growth
 - c. in community relations
 - d. in taking many factors into account when making a decision, especially a quick one?

In order to explore the meaning of these questions, it may be useful to point out that each one symbolizes a group of practices which are definitely *for* democratic values, realistic understanding of our society and the nature of learning. A fitting conclusion to this chapter is found in the memorable words of a student in one of the schools where, despite the greatest difficulties, a handful of courageous teachers developed classroom practice along the lines described in this chapter.

Unused knowledge soon vanishes. Education lies in thinking and doing. From my experience in the progressive group I believe I have learned to think critically and act more intelligently for myself. I believe that after studying in such a group one could not accept a statement without thinking and questioning it. I believe I have learned to read more intelligently and to enjoy reading more than if I had not been trained as progressives have been. I believe I have learned to work with others as a part of a group and for the good of the group, and not for my own benefit and honor.³²

³² Altoona High School.

Chapter V

THE INTEGRATION OF SCHOOL LIFE



Stated in bald, perhaps over-simplified words, the task of the secondary school is the democratization of its students. To the accomplishment of this task is bent every effort of the classroom, affecting that which is taught, the ways in which the content is organized, and the ways in which it is treated. But concern for democratic values in the classroom is not enough. The other phases of school life should have a similar and supplementing focus. It is the function of this chapter to consider ways in which various aspects of the whole school can contribute to the purposes of the school. The headings used will be: School Government, Whole-School Projects, Clubs, Home-Rooms, Problem-Solving, and Use of Community Resources.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

Rare indeed is the school that does not have some form of student government. In some places it is referred to as the "student government," and teachers have little or no part in it; in other schools it is called "school government" and represents a sincere attempt to achieve a truly cooperative relationship between students and teachers. At its worst, student government serves merely as the medium through which a small group of students, who are naturally leaders anyway, find an opportunity to bask once again in the limelight, and through which the school administration secures the performance of clerical and administrative tasks, *gratis*. At its best, school government becomes the arena in which all the students and teachers in the school can grasp, study, decide,

and act upon problems that have immediacy, urgency, and reality. There are few better places for developing in students a respect for the dignity and worth of the individual. There is no better place for teaching the skills of social participation and a concern for the welfare of others.

The criticisms of student governments which have been most valid are these:

There has not been a broad enough base of participation, either by students or teachers. Part of this is due to restrictions which the school itself establishes. In some schools, for example, only those students may vote who buy activity tickets, or in other ways have a share in the student budget. Other schools have intellectual rather than financial qualifications—students may not hold office who do not achieve a certain level of grades, and in at least one instance, satisfactory grades have been established as a qualification for voting. This sort of thinking seems to imply that participation in student government can, like athletics, be made the incentive which will lead students to learn that which they do not want to learn for intrinsic values. It also represents a failure to see that sharing in a functional school government is, in itself, learning—frequently more important and meaningful than textbook mastery.

Another cause for a narrow base of pupil participation is found in the insignificant things with which student government deals. It simply does not touch the lives of either students or teachers, and what little synthetic interest is whipped up does not last.

“A striking fact in student government constitutions is the prevalence of adult purposes,” reports Earl C. Kelley, who has made a study of student government. He continues,¹ “Over three times as many constitutions mention promoting the welfare of the school as mention promoting the welfare

¹ *Student Cooperation*, National Self-Government Committee, Inc., 80 Broadway, New York, 1941.

of the student body. A large number of other purposes listed show the desires and needs of the faculty." Where student government amounts to nothing more than a kind of machinery by which adults persuade adolescents to perform functions that are worth while only in the eyes of adults, certainly criticism is valid. One principal permits his student government to plan assemblies. The chief value which this has for him is that the student officers, not he, must refuse an audience to "undesirable" speakers whom community groups would foist on the school.

If the activities of the government are adult activities, they may or may not be desirable as training in democracy. The important question is: do the students share in policy-making, or do they simply establish and run the machinery for carrying out purposes that teachers have formulated? It is a question that can be answered for any given school only by an intensive study of the specific situation. Below is a list of functions served by various school governments in some of the schools in the Eight-Year Study:

Policing corridors

Establishing a detention system for tardiness offenders

Supervising homeroom meetings

Controlling school traffic outside and inside school

Regulating student use of automobiles

Accepting responsibility for the condition of all school property

Accepting responsibility for the general condition of the lunch room

Administering the study hall

Serving as hosts to school visitors

Running the lost and found department

Taking charge of the school bulletin boards

Planning exhibits of school work in the corridors

Planning fire drills

- Administering safety and clean-up campaigns
- Sharing with teachers membership on the Calendar Committee
- Approving the school-effort honor roll
- Determining citizenship requirements necessary for varsity letters in athletics
- Sharing with teachers membership on curriculum committees
- Planning school assemblies for regular and special occasions
- Controlling student activity fees and the student budget
- Editing and controlling the school paper, magazine and yearbook
- Conducting drives for charity: Community Chest, Bundles, Red Cross, etc.
- Deciding to which agencies school donations should go
- Helping with the athletic program, establishing and ruling on eligibility, approving schedules, planning and administering ticket sales, policing and ushering
- Controlling all school social programs such as parties, dances, big brother and sister arrangements, etc.
- Supervising club activities
- Governing the formation of outside organizations within the school, such as the American Student Union
- Planning for whole-school activities, such as Christmas festivals, May Day, and celebration of anniversaries
- Planning for College Night, Career Day and similar phases of vocational orientation
- Helping to plan for American Education Week
- Sending student speakers to business and professional clubs

Some of these activities obviously amount to little more than the administration of policies formulated by adults. Others are just as surely conceived and carried out coopera-

tively. A typical activity, such as planning and conducting a drive for funds for the Community Chest may, in one school, be motivated by teachers and in another, by students. Adolescents have been defined as children trying to become adults; therefore the presence of adult activities on the list does not inevitably mean that the students did not formulate the policy.

In general, adults protect adolescents too much from consequences. In spite of grades and reports, this is generally true in classroom procedure. It is doubly true in the area of school government. This is not an argument for allowing students to cut off a finger or two in order to learn the sharpness and danger of a rip saw, but it does permit the conclusion that certain areas ought to be theirs in which they have the final responsibility and take the consequences of either success or failure. The John Burroughs School furnishes an illustration of this. There the students have, among other responsibilities, the administration of the study hall. Through their Assembly and Council they formulate and administer the rules of conduct. Through the Court they penalize offenders. In this phase of school life, an annual cycle may be observed. In the first months of the school year, everyone is socially conscious, and the study hall is usually a quiet place in which to work. Then winter weather and adolescent distaste for monotony (even of good things!) effect a change, and noise in the room increases. With this unnecessary noise grows a sentiment that anyone who reports an offender is a "snitch." As the study hall becomes less and less a place where studying is possible, a part of the faculty usually urges that the teachers assume control. Always there are students who also argue for this action since they find themselves forced to do school work at night which they otherwise could do during study periods. The faculty has always been able to resist this temptation and to say to the students that they must clean their own house. And always the students

have been able to do it. The more conscientious and courageous have braved the public opinion of fellow students and have taken on the job of reporting offenders, sometimes banding together for mutual support, and for planning and conducting a campaign to change student opinion. Out of these incidents has come the learning that the well-disposed have to take active measures against the lawless, the careless, and the indifferent, and that an authoritarian regime, no matter how benevolent, is less to be desired than orderliness internally achieved.

Most student-government activities are regarded as extra-curricular. Where this is true, the responsibilities, problems, and successes of student government never get into the classroom. Worse, they do not get into the daily living of the students. Mr. Kelley reports that

whether student officers are expected to do anything in the classroom, nearly seventy per cent of those replying (to his questionnaire) report that the officers do not have classroom functions. This probably means that these officers perform whatever governmental functions they are able to do in council meetings. The government of the school, since it is merely representative and not a daily functioning matter, does not get into the daily lives of either officers or non-office holding students. The large schools show more classroom participation than the small schools.²

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Furthermore, he records that

sponsors devote very little time to student participation in government. About seventy per cent devote one period a day or less to it. Even in the largest schools, only twenty-two sponsors devote as much as two periods a day. This shows the amount of money that is spent on it.³

On the other hand, in several schools in the Eight-Year Study, matters of import to the school government have pre-

² *Ibid.*, p. 11.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 13. The italics are his.

ferred status on the agenda of social-studies classes where not only are matters discussed which are current in the school government, but also, in some instances, reforms originate from a study of civics.

Too many student governments are set up with machinery too inflexible for the purpose they are to accomplish. By some that purpose has been defined as serving as a miniature model by which to teach civics. By others it has been defined as efficiently accomplishing the purposes of administration; or, perhaps, serving as the arena in which the greatest number can learn the skills of effective social participation. The first purpose seemingly has been important enough to lead many of the student-government constitution makers to establish little Washingtons—with executive, legislative, and judicial functions neatly divided and balanced, and with an elaborate system of representation. The deficiency which these persons deplore is that usually they have been unable to find any persistent issues around which they could organize stable political parties.

Efficient administration as an end for student government would tend to establish a small group as the officials, and to perpetuate them in office once they had learned to carry out their functions. On the other hand, attaining the goal of the widest possible participation would argue for whole-school participation in an assembly; provision for small, frequently held, discussion groups; a revolving officialdom; and a system of committees to distribute responsibilities widely.

The Scylla and Charybdis of school government are: too little teacher participation on the one hand, and teacher domination on the other. It is indeed an unusual adult who, without losing interest, can participate with adolescents and not dominate. With the teaching loads which most of them carry, it is hard to criticize teachers for using the time of student assemblies as an opportunity to relax a moment. It

is noteworthy, however, that student-government sponsors seldom want to miss an assembly, and most teachers are present when the debate promises to be general and interesting. Perhaps the solution lies in widening teacher membership in school-government committees, rotation of sponsorship responsibilities, and placing school-government affairs on the permanent agenda of faculty meetings.

The following paragraph, written by a teacher in one of the schools in the Eight-Year Study, expresses the fundamentally important thing about school government: that adolescents, when given opportunity and responsibility, can be depended upon to come out at the right place.

It has been interesting this year to compare the impersonal, detached, fair way the pupils discuss a problem which is vital to them with the emotional approach which most of our faculty make. Is it an argument for or against education? The pupils refuse to leave a problem until they have almost a unanimous decision. The basis they invariably use in making decisions is: which will be the most democratic way?

WHOLE-SCHOOL PROJECTS

On those occasions when the placid routine of regular classroom sessions is disturbed by some undertaking that involves all or most of the students and teachers, phenomena of behavior are evident which ought to be studied more carefully and weighted more heavily. Regular class attendance and classroom discipline wane while a ferment fills the rank and file of students with a new zest and a strange purposefulness. Committees buzz with their heads together in unexpected corners; chairmen flutter, bustle, and cluck like distracted hens over their various responsibilities; new decibels of noise penetrate the corridors; and the principal groans for his reputation when a casual or important visitor appears. As the deadline approaches, confusion is confounded and the last yards of bunting trail through the halls; the last

emergency messenger is sent for the last unforeseen supply; the last touch of grease paint is applied; and the last despairing reminder of his lines is pounded into the distracted ear of the speaker of the prologue. The audience of dragooned parents appears; the ushers, with their trows of spectators, parade up and down quite obviously aware that the entire success of the whole undertaking depends on them. The lights dim, flare, and dim again; the curtain parts, and the operetta, or pageant, or Christmas celebration has begun. If the prompter works overtime, or an adolescent voice cracks on a high note, the audience will be charitable, but by a surprisingly large majority most of these high-school efforts are highly creditable performances. Most adolescents have that histrionic power of rising to meet the demands of an occasion. The final curtain brings that sense of success which everyone needs, and that realization of group achievement which is perhaps the prime essential in teaching cooperation. And so frequently competent, thoughtful, imaginative leadership manifests itself in boys and girls from whom teachers had ceased to expect adequate academic achievement.

But after the last borrowed prop has been returned, and the last chair replaced in the despoiled classrooms, when the dramatics, music, home economics, and art teachers have recovered quietly from their nervous breakdowns, it is proper to ask: has it been worth it? During the hectic days of preparation, teachers of academic subjects had been wailing or swearing, according to their various natures, at the disruption of their work. For some students, the opportunity is gone forever to learn of the contested election of 1876 or the various proper uses of the conjunction. The school is slow in recovering its placidity of routine; students are loath to surrender their sense of importance.

The answer to the question can be found only in the purposes of the school. The project ought to be planned to fit

the purposes, selected as the most fitting agency to achieve those goals, and carried out so that the most effective contribution to them is made. It should be clearly recognized that this is an "either-or," not a "both-and" decision. If a whole-school project of any magnitude is undertaken, corresponding omissions should be made in academic courses of study. To regard the time spent in preparation for such an effort as time that must be made up by increased pressure on classroom assignments is to hold to double and conflicting sets of values. These conflicting values are most frequently found in schools which have not integrated their philosophy. The only answer is a strenuous travail of faculty discussion of objectives, this time with an emphasis on the specific project. Only through proposal, discussion, experimentation, and evaluation—repeated several times—will faculty unity be achieved.

Granting the educational values of the whole-school project, it must be recognized that it is strong medicine, and hence should be prescribed wisely and sparingly.

Examples of whole-school projects can be found in practically all of the schools in the Eight-Year Study, and while the Toy Shop of Francis Parker will differ considerably in details from the December program of Tower Hill, the differences are due to the needs of the local programs. Space will permit the description of only one project here, and the one used is chosen for its wide variation from the generalized picture given above. Perhaps technically it does not qualify as a "whole-school" project since it was carried on through a core program rather than completely outside the classroom, but since all of the students in the school had a chance to participate, its inclusion here may be justified.

Cherokee Junior High School is one of Tulsa's schools, serving a suburban, semi-rural community. It has an enrollment of about 200, its boys and girls coming from homes whose financial status is listed as "very poor, a few com-

fortable," with the occupations of its patrons given as farmers and commuting office workers. The Tulsa report describes the Cherokee project in these words:

One interesting problem which the general education classes of Cherokee School tackled, and which called for close cooperative planning among all groups was helping to plan the evolution of an old farm house in the community.

Mr. and Mrs. X, a young married couple, both employed, bought a ten-acre "farm" in the community. The place had previously been rented for a number of years and had been so neglected by its owner that it was extremely dilapidated. Mr. and Mrs. X, endowed with more imagination and enthusiasm for the fine country air than money, saw some possibilities in the place. Some neighborhood general-education students saw in it the possibilities of a made-to-order workshop.

Having obtained the consent of Mr. and Mrs. X to visit the farm and to make of it a general-education project, both students and teachers set to work. They went to the farm in groups, took notes as to the condition of the land, which was washing badly and was in need of terracing; of the fruit trees, which were in need of pruning; of the lawn, which was no lawn at all, but an overgrown mass of flowers and shrubs which had apparently "just grown" like Topsy. The house presented the hardest problem. At first glance, even the most imaginative student was dismayed. "What could ever come of this shack?" "Why would respectable people like Mr. and Mrs. X, with reasonable incomes, want to live in a place like this?" Some of the windows had no facings at all—only pieces of orange crates nailed here and there. One window had oilcloth nailed over it where the pane should have been. The room used as a bedroom had at one time been a garage. The garage doors were still standing, and worn green roller shades were still hanging to the upper glasses. The floors were uneven, warped, and daylight could be seen through some of the cracks. The beaver-board walls were warped and smoky, and two of the three rooms had no baseboard or molding at all. The house had gas but no electricity. Water was carried from a nearby well.

After carefully measuring the rooms (just because the teacher thought it would be a good idea) the groups returned to their school to talk things over. Bill volunteered from his notes that the house did have a good roof. Finally, Anne volunteered that if the house were painted—white, preferably, with maybe some green shutters—it might not look so bad. “Come to think of it, the general shape of the house was good; it didn’t sag or lean especially.” From there on ideas started thriving. They believed something could be done with that old place, after all! “Wouldn’t a peasant style kitchen be cute!” “Do you suppose Mr. X would let us help prune the trees?” “Light wallpaper would make the rooms much larger and lighter.” Work was under way!

With a budget of less than \$200 assigned by Mrs. X, the girls planned furnishings for three rooms, and did the job on \$180. The living room and the bedroom were furnished in maple, with knotty pine linoleum as floor covering, with green and russet tones in upholstering and accessories. The girls learned that pinching pennies is a fascinating art; and, time and time again, they were called upon to weigh values. For example, unbleached muslin, when trimmed in colonial ball fringe from the dime store, made lovely and practical draperies which served as curtains as well as shades. They discovered that an old wing chair and a small three-legged stool when covered with gay cretonne at a cost of \$1.50 were good economy. They sensibly concluded that to ease the budget by buying a \$12.50 used range was folly when a reliable furniture company announced a one-day sale of a good standard, table-top range, which regularly sold for \$40, could be bought for \$30. Further, they found that this was a term price and Mrs. X by paying cash, secured a good stove for \$27.

The budget had to be compensated some way, so the girls cancelled their plans for a maple dinette and buffet which was to have gone at one end of the kitchen and took up their original idea of a peasant kitchen. A sturdy beechwood dinette with red leather chairs didn’t cost as much as maple, and the buffet idea was mostly for ornamentation anyway! Imagine their joy, when they discovered while ambling through a used furniture store, a red-lacquered buffet for only \$4.00!

It should be explained that Mrs. X, before setting her \$200

budget, had listed her sole household possessions as: a good bedspring and mattress, an electric refrigerator, an electric lamp, an overstuffed chair, and a small radio. Also, Mr. and Mrs. X planned to build a new home in a few years, in which case this house would be rented. Otherwise they would have felt it wise to spend more money for more durable and permanent furnishings.

At any rate, here was an opportunity offered to students from, on the whole, what we call "middle class" and poor homes to face a problem very similar to that which they might likely be called upon to face as adults. Those from extremely poor homes were inspired by the results of careful planning, industriousness, hard work, and the expenditure of very little money. Mr. X did all of his own carpenter work, painting, and paper hanging without having had any more training in such arts than the average man. Emphasis was given here, however, to the fact that the hiring of skilled labor is cheaper in the long run, where it is possible for people to pay for such service. Mr. X, in lieu of such diversions as stamp collecting, golf, and similar hobbies, looked upon his endeavors as recreation from office routine.

It would take a complete volume to list the many details and fields of study into which this activity led the classes. The art room was visited time and again for sketches of room plans (the mechanical drawing instructor had to help here, too) for color harmony, for designs and their relationship to each other, and for countless other bits of advice that only the art teacher could give. The science teacher assisted with their landscaping problems, but didn't stop there—he also aided with any problem with which he could give assistance. The shop instructor turned out to be an expert in the business of pruning trees, and gave the boys not only instruction, but actual experience in tree pruning and tree surgery. (Incidentally Mr. X reports a fine fruit season!)

The original question raised by the students as to why people with good incomes should be content with a house so unpromising led to some excellent research and discussion on family budgeting and finance.

Briefly listed, these are a few of the areas of exploration into which the X farm led the students: installment buying; charge

accounts; methods of shopping; types of work one can do at home to save the family pocketbook; a list of the essential needs of a home; a list of things considered as luxuries; reading magazine articles, novels, and poems concerning the needs of the home; comparison of cost of ready-made and home-made articles; study of possible fire hazards; figuring costs of plumbing and wiring; consideration of factors other than money in figuring the needs of the family; study of insurance problems; use of simple tools for home repair; arrangement of furniture for beauty and convenience; lighting needs of a home.⁴

SCHOOL CLUBS

The formulation of school clubs to cater to students' interests represented a movement away from pedagogical Puritanism. Under a concept of formal discipline, if an activity had in it any interest or potentially pleasing aspect, it had no place in the school. Only that which was hard, dry, and unpleasant could possibly be respectable. But as Puritanism waned as a social force, as the schools absorbed a larger proportion of the educable youth, as the impact of utility in education added home economics, industrial arts, and other practical fields to the curriculum, progressive schoolmen added to the schedule a period when students might indulge their interests. Efficient administrators thoroughly organized the activity period and set up complicated codes for student clubs, and speakers on educational platforms spoke learnedly of the relationships and differences between curricular and extra-curricular activities.

Every student had to be enrolled in a club (otherwise he might waste his time); every club had to have a teacher sponsor; and, driven by administrative edict and a professional urge, every teacher had to sponsor a club. So, we have had history clubs, science clubs, Latin clubs, literature clubs—the whole gamut of the curriculum, in addition to the genuine hobby or interest groups such as photography

⁴Tulsa Public Schools, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

clubs, stamp clubs, and so on. Thus the same fundamental conflict of values has developed in the operation of clubs that was seen in the whole-school projects: the separation of the classroom from the things that were of real interest and concern to adolescents.

There are three grounds for criticizing school clubs as they are usually operated:

1. *They are either ineffectively organized or they are so completely organized that all the juice of spontaneity and interest is squeezed out.* In many cases, the only available meeting time is after school when whatever real interest exists is exhausted by the long school day, by the demands of school-bus transportation, by heavy homework assignments, and by the competition of such other adolescent activities as music and dancing lessons, dental and medical appointments, shopping, and the like. One school found that when time was taken from academic classes for music, art, and craft work the subject teachers increased the homework assignments. In other schools, time within the school day was provided for clubs and activities, but when that time amounted to two periods a week or less, the interval caused enthusiasm to flag. Wherever all clubs have met at the same time, students have had to choose among the possibilities, frequently not getting into the club of their first choice so that ultimately it became a decision as to the lesser of evils. The same conditions have created a very uneven distribution of student leadership which has at times been accentuated by compulsory sponsorship. The latter factor has frequently resulted in management that has been unenthusiastic, to say the least. Furthermore, students have been discouraged from changing clubs, once they have enrolled, so that when their first superficial interest was satisfied they became dead weights. On this point an anecdote is pertinent, with implications for the whole area of interest motivation. A boy whose father was a noted astronomer once

asked his mother why the stars twinkled. Feeling her inadequacy, she answered, "I'm not sure, son. Why don't you ask your father?" "No," said the boy, "I don't want to know that much about it."

2. *In their actual operation, clubs sometimes tend to develop social distinctions and snobbery.* Certain cliques come to dominate certain clubs and build up effective means of governing their clubs' membership. In many schools, high-school fraternities and sororities either flourish openly or constitute themselves school clubs, and neither local nor state legislative ruling can completely eradicate them. Some regulations require pledges from each student that he does not and will not belong to a fraternity during high school. Others require the filing of club constitutions, ritual, and membership with the administration where they are kept on open file. The school systems that seem to have had the greatest success in curbing fraternities and other organizations in which invidious social distinctions are prominent are those which have consciously developed a long-term program of teaching democratic values.

3. *School clubs tend on the one hand to be completely separate from the academic curriculum, or on the other hand to become formally curricularized and departmentalized.* If there is any value in interest motivation, the academic classroom certainly needs that help. It is pertinent to note that in those schools where core programs have been developed around centers of students' interests and problems, more of the types of activities for which clubs were designed have been drawn into the classroom, and clubs have declined in number and enrollment. In other places, however, under the urging of teachers seeking academic respectability for their fields, dramatics, vocal and instrumental music, the graphic and plastic arts, and the crafts have been made regularly scheduled subjects giving credit toward graduation. If the arts are to compete with the academic subjects, perhaps this

formalization has been necessary, but it is regrettable to see students engage in these activities for grades and credits rather than for the enjoyment offered.

In summary, it would seem that a place is needed where students can relate hobbies to education, and continue to develop interests engendered in class. No matter how sensitive a teacher may be to student interests, and how flexible his course, some pupils will want to spend more time on an activity than the good of the whole group would permit. For this, time in the school day should be provided. It becomes the task of the administrator to find that time; to provide capable and enthusiastic sponsorship; to be sure that the interests are genuinely the students'—not wholly the teacher's; to provide for easy entry into and withdrawal from the activity; and to see that the out-of-class work of each student is related to his classwork wherever possible.

THE HOME-ROOM

As a concern for students' interests brought about school clubs, so acceptance of the guidance function has led to home-rooms. As schools have grown larger and larger, the sheer impersonality of numbers has necessitated some sort of system by which students would have a designated place, and some adult would have the responsibilities of fitting each individual into the machinery of the school. Other reasons for the home-room have been added to this central one. The community has come more and more to expect the schools to do something about citizenship education. That task was given to the home-room. The school's goals were stated in terms of character-building. If that did not emerge from the general aura of the school, some unit of the school ought to be designated to bear the responsibility. The home-room shouldered it. If education were not to become a haphazard pattern of disjointed offerings, somewhere in the school personal and group guidance would

have to be rendered—guidance as to education, guidance as to vocation, guidance in personal problems. Where else could that be done but in the home-room? The home-room has provided the machinery for schedule-making, the place in which announcements are made, the basis of representation for student government, and the point of origin of school dances. Most schools provide 15 to 30 minutes a day as a home-room period.

Of course, all of these responsibilities and functions are important, and the school would be remiss in its accepted task if they were not accepted and performed. Yet the home-room is arousing more and more criticism and is tending to disappear. The reason, perhaps, is obvious: schoolmen are beginning to see the futility of compartmentalizing—of separating the learning of content from the agencies which are intended to accomplish the fundamental objectives of the school. The fault with the home-room is that it is divorced from content; the fault with the classroom is that it is separated from application. Administrators and teachers who see this are, therefore, beginning to merge the home-room and the classroom. The increasing function of teachers in the guidance program is discussed in Chapter VI. It is necessary here only to include this excerpt from the Tulsa Report:

It is very evident that the home-room is rapidly losing ground in Tulsa. The thinking back of the change is that training in desirable social, civic, and personal activities is most effectively given when young people see the value of utilizing those characteristics in working out a satisfactory solution to a problem in which they are vitally interested. Such problems arise naturally in the classroom, so why set up an artificial situation outside of natural learning situations—or if problems arise outside why not vitalize classroom learning by means of a suitable problem of immediate interest?⁵

⁵ Tulsa Public Schools, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

PROBLEM-SOLVING

Thus far, this chapter has considered some forms of the machinery of the school which can contribute to the democratization of students. These have lain outside of the classroom, and it has been urged that in too many schools, the machinery has been too distinctly separated from the classroom. The area to be explored now is more an emphasis and a technique than it is a tangible part of the school.

Outstanding practitioners in the teaching profession are coming to see more and more clearly the need to attack their objectives directly, and to depend less upon an indiscriminate transfer of training from the mastery of logically organized bodies of subject matter. One of the widely held objectives which is being analyzed to see what constitutes its operations, is that of developing students who can think intelligently about problems with which they are concerned. This process of thinking has been variously called *problem-solving*, *critical thinking*, *reflective thinking*, *intelligent thinking*, *functional thinking*, *scientific thinking*, and *the use of the scientific process*. Whatever the name, it has been assumed that it is desirable to move, by some intelligent process, from problem to decision, and finally to action. Various analyses of this process have been used. A relatively simple one that has been used by Mr. Edgerton at Wisconsin High School consists of four steps: Find the Facts, Filter the Facts, Face the Facts, and Follow the Facts. Others, much more elaborate, require three and four pages for their exposition.

If the use of a problems approach and of a process of problem-solving were a matter of concern solely to individual classroom teachers, this would not be the place to consider it. The reason for dealing with problem-solving in a chapter on the characteristics of school life is that it is becoming more and more clear that the best results are obtained, in terms of realization of objectives, when the sev-

eral teachers concerned with a given student cooperate in aiding him to develop the power to use an agreed-on process. The teachers of the University School of Ohio State University agree in their Report:

Nor is the cultivation of reflective thinking the special responsibility of any one subject-matter area. It is rather the concern of all areas in the school, and there is no single situation at any age level that calls for an intelligent postponement of decision which cannot be utilized to help in the achievement of this important quality of thought.⁶

The teachers of the John Burroughs School have for a long time been concerned with the development of problem-solving powers, and a committee in that school pioneered in the analysis of the process and its application to learning. That Committee has reported, in part:

The educational value particularly inherent in the area of Intellectual Effectiveness is that type of behavior which we have chosen to call problem-solving. The pupil looks for, and is able to recognize, inherent conflicts which form a problem situation; he gathers information within a wide range concerning its solution; he sets and tests numerous hypotheses; and, when all available evidence is presented, he draws a conclusion consistent with the data. Finally, he feels a responsibility for the future application of his knowledge in confronting new situations.⁷

In any school where there is more than one teacher working toward this objective, there is need for agreement on the steps involved and the language to be used in defining them, if for no other reason than that pupils may know that the process to which they apply scientific and mathematical data is the same as that which they are urged to use in considering social problems.

It has been further demonstrated that teaching for this objective is most effective when problems of living—sig-

⁶ University School of Ohio State University, *ibid.*

⁷ John Burroughs School, *ibid.*

nificant to students—are used. Indeed, such a conclusion can be derived from the philosophy of education which defines the purpose of the school as the development in the student of the powers necessary for successful living in a democracy. If ability to solve problems is essential for democratic living, and the ability to define accurately the problem with which one is confronted is a part of that process of thinking, then students must be given practice in *defining* problems, as well as in the other steps of problem-solving. Very few persons can define, or are interested in defining problems that are not real and significant to them. The Ohio State University School believes that

the problems studied should have their origin in the daily living experience of the students, and they should be studied in a manner conducive to the free play of intelligence.⁸

The Report of the John Burroughs School agrees:

An implication of the teaching for problem-solving is that the pupils must be presented with whole problems. Situations which are real to them and in which they can find a valid interest must become at least part of the teaching material.⁹

If whole problems are used, and are drawn from the daily-living experience of the students, the urge toward cooperative teaching is strong. Rare indeed is the problem of daily living which falls wholly within one subject field. It is a frustration of the scientific process to plan in such a way that students can consider data pertinent to a problem from only one area when other fields have contributions. The development of a core curriculum is not mandatory (although from this point of view it is strongly desirable), but efforts to achieve cooperation among teachers certainly are. Problem-solving is best taught when it is a characteristic of the whole school.

⁸ University School of Ohio State University, *ibid.*

⁹ John Burroughs School, *ibid.*

THE USE OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The Socratic plan of education was based on the assumption that knowledge is power, that knowing the right course of action is synonymous with practicing it. Socrates identified piety with knowing what was due the gods, temperance with a knowledge of the evils of immoderation, and civic virtue with knowing what was due the state. He thought he was asking a rhetorical question when he said, "What man, knowing what is right, will do that which is evil?" Today we know that the question is not rhetorical, and that the answer is, "Most of us."

In general, American education since its inception has been sterile of action. It has either touched life indirectly or not at all. In those instances where schooling has come down to practical problems, it has not sought to carry through into planned, intelligent action. The fairly recent concern for the development of socially desirable attitudes in pupils has resulted, at its best, in efforts to change the beliefs of students. Too often, little or no effort has been made to provide pupils with practice in the application of those beliefs to life situations.

Three ingredients account for this sterility. One is the absorption of teachers in courses of study and mastery of subject matter. This absorption may be a defense mechanism caused by the partial exclusion of teachers from the life of the community. A second factor is the community's concept of the function of the school. If the school succeeds in keeping adolescents from under foot during most of the day, and refrains from raising a hullabaloo in doing so, most of the community is satisfied with the job although questions may be raised as to why it costs so much to perform so innocuous a task. The third reason is that the culture pattern of contemporary America has less and less a place for the adolescent in it. There is less for him to do in the home; the

age at which he may marry is being pushed back; and there are fewer jobs for him.

Thus the mandate of problem-solving: to act intelligently in accordance with a decision reached about a problem presents a tremendous challenge and an extremely knotty problem to American secondary education. The implication to use community resources is inevitable, and the potential resources include those of the school community as well as those in the out-of-school environment.

Three uses of community resources by schools suggest themselves:

1. the community presents illustrations of the larger problems or areas studied in the classroom;
2. the community in its entirety or in part offers an area for direct study;
3. the community offers an essential arena of action.

Obviously a thorough consideration of these three levels of use would require a volume in itself. All that can be attempted here is a brief exposition to illustrate each.

1. The sight of the school-bus taking a load of children to visit the local dairy or the nearby conservation project has become familiar. Science classes visit the waterworks and the power plant, English classes go to the city library, mathematics classes view the evidence of geometry in public buildings, and social studies classes ride off in all directions. The need here is less to point out the opportunities for trips than to indicate some essential cautions: the need for careful planning and study before the trip, for discipline during the excursion, and for an intelligent follow-up afterward; the danger of overworking friendly community agencies; the difficulty, comparable to that experienced by the photographer, of seeing a process in action.

2. More and more schools are devoting assigned parts of

their curriculum to a study of the community. Most popular, perhaps, is the allocation of this function to the ninth-grade social studies course under the name of "community civics." This placement probably was originally made when the ninth grade constituted the terminal education experience for most adolescents. Since this is less true, and since the direct study of the community is a larger field and a wider opportunity than can be adequately handled by any one subject, and because the study of the community with its necessary trips is likely to run afoul of the periods of time assigned to other teachers, the implication is possible that the direct study of the community, or of phases of it, ought to be spread throughout the curriculum.

3. The problem of discovering suitable arenas of action in which adolescents may take part is so difficult that it invites the cooperation of many teachers and community leaders with vision. The solution which Des Moines has found to this problem, as well as to phases of the two previously listed areas, is so thorough that it is worth examining. In 1939, representatives of school groups there asked leaders of community organizations to help them solve the problem. Out of 60 such requests, 45 agreed, and these combined groups effected an organization. Their steering committee recommended that a survey of Des Moines be made in the following areas of living:

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. business | 8. inter-cultural relations |
| 2. consumer education | 9. occupational opportunity |
| 3. education | 10. practical and fine arts |
| 4. government | 11. public welfare |
| 5. health | 12. recreation |
| 6. home | 13. religion |
| 7. industry | 14. safety |

In the survey, agencies or offices which lay within these areas were to state their functions and purposes, and were

asked to indicate which of the following cooperative services they could and would render the schools:

1. Would they permit visits by groups of students? If so, how many students at a time should come? What times were most convenient for such visits? What age groups could profit most from such a trip? How much advance notice should be given? What person should be called to arrange such a trip? What was his telephone number?
2. Could the agency furnish speakers who might visit a school class and explain the work of that agency? In what areas of specialization were such speakers available? For what age groups were these speakers most suitable? With whom should arrangements be made?
3. Could the agency provide demonstrations of its work? Of what type? Could these be sent to the schools? With whom should arrangements be made?
4. Were other visual materials available? Of what nature? In what quantities? At what cost?
5. Could pupils participate in any way in the work of the agency?

The results of this survey were mimeographed and made available to the teachers of Des Moines in a handbook which is eminently practical and useful.¹⁰

SUMMARY

The hope that the democratization of adolescents can come painlessly through the mastery of content alone can be dismissed as unrealistic. The possibility has been thoroughly discredited of parceling out responsibility for de-

¹⁰ The foreword to this handbook is given in its entirety, and representative excerpts of its listings are included on pp. 337-47 of the Appendix. The committee's advice for the use of the handbook is especially worthy of notice.

veloping in students the several components of democratic living. No one teacher or department can make students concerned for the dignity and worth of individuals, or teach the skills of effective social participation, unless those qualities are important everywhere in the school, in class and out. The school that is determinedly attempting to attain democratic goals must:

1. have clear agreement, among those concerned, as to its purposes;
2. know what those purposes mean in terms of everyday living;
3. sacrifice any practice, no matter how time-hallowed, that conflicts and interferes with those frequently re-clarified purposes;
4. be original in conceiving more functional ways of reaching its objectives;
5. demonstrate the wisdom of Solomon, the meekness of Moses, the genius of Joshua, and the patience of Job.

Chapter VI

ADMINISTRATION AS THE SERVANT OF EDUCATION



SCHOOL STAFFS DEFINE SCHOOL POLICIES

The definition of educational policy through cooperative procedures in a small school can be accomplished with relatively simple administrative organization by the use of faculty meetings. For this purpose, the staff of the Tower Hill School uses the faculty meeting, supplemented by committee organizations with clearly defined responsibilities.

The usual discussions in these faculty meetings deal with such problems as:

- the nature of a democratic society
- the needs of adolescents in such a society
- the purposes of the school
- articulation between areas of experience within a grade
and between grade levels
- the meaning and place of general education and of
specialized education
- school and community relations
- the effective use of time, space, and equipment
- reports of committees on objectives

As soon as tentative agreement is reached as to the objectives of the school, the staff is divided into committees, one committee for each of the objectives. Teachers indicate preferences as to the committee on which they wish to work, and allocation and assignments are made on the basis of their preferences. Each committee then meets and elects

a chairman. The functions and responsibilities of these committees are:

1. to define an objective in operational terms;
2. to design or suggest methods of appraising student progress toward the achievement of the objective.

The results of each committee's work form the basis for faculty discussion, and its statements are revised in the light of faculty criticisms and recommendations. The work of each committee is considered to be a long range responsibility. As a faculty works toward the achievement of an objective, new concepts and insights emerge. As a faculty studies its students, its local environment, and our democratic culture, objectives take on new meanings. On the other hand, intensive work on objectives reacts both to broaden and to intensify the operating philosophy of a school. This interaction is a potent factor in teacher growth and in increasing the effectiveness of the school program.

Curriculum planning is done by grade committees rather than by departments. The plan or program designed by a grade committee is submitted to the entire faculty so that each teacher can see the total school program in detail and make suggestions to the grade group. These discussion periods also provide opportunity to deal with the problems involving articulation of the program from grade to grade. Since each teacher in the high school department teaches classes at three or more grade levels, most of the problems of articulation are handled quite satisfactorily in the grade committees which plan the curriculum.

The chairman of each committee on objectives and the director of the school constitute a steering or coordinating committee. This committee only makes recommendations, decisions on all questions being made by the faculty. The teachers in the elementary department, for example, have

participated in determining the nature of the high school program and feel that they have had a part in the work.

The problem of the cooperative definition of policy in a larger school is essentially the same as for the small school, but increased numbers of both pupils and teachers introduce elements requiring slightly more complex organization. The Eagle Rock High School, Los Angeles, uses the same procedures and organization as described for Tower Hill School, with a few additional features.

Faculty meetings and objectives committees are utilized for the same purposes and follow the same procedures as described at Tower Hill, except for the membership of the coordinating committee. Eagle Rock has an "administrative council" which includes the principal, two vice-principals, guidance officer, vocational advisor, registrar, three curriculum coordinators, and three teachers elected at large. The council meets twice each month to discuss and take action on problems submitted by an "agenda" committee composed of teachers who are not members of the council. Departmental supervisors have been replaced by three curriculum coordinators whose responsibility is to bring together all educational concerns of the school.

In addition to being a member of a committee on objectives, each teacher is also a member of a grade-curriculum committee. These committees have responsibility for studying the pupils in the grade, for the planning and administration of their educational experience, and for evaluating the effectiveness of the program. The three coordinators work with the curriculum committees on problems of coordination of activities within the grade, and problems of articulation of the program from grade to grade.

By this type of organization, the members of the faculty hope to achieve greater unity of each year's experience than was possible for them under a departmental organization. The primary function of the coordinators is to see that the

strengths of departmental organization, through articulation from grade to grade, are not lost.

In order to provide time for these many committee meetings, the school day starts three-quarters of an hour later for pupils, and the time previously used as the first teaching period is now used for committee work. The student council handles problems of control and supervision of pupils arriving before the formal start of the school day.

POLICY COUNCILS OF CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS

With minor variations in organization, most of the junior and senior high schools in the large city systems represented in the Study are following the procedures described at Tower Hill and at Eagle Rock. Being a single school in a large system, however, introduces some real difficulties. There is a central administration exercising some degree of control. Since the policy of the school system places restrictions on, or gives direction to, the definition of policy in a single school, Denver, Tulsa, and Des Moines each felt the need of a city-wide policies council. The functions of these councils are defined differently in the three cities but examination reveals many common elements.

In all three cities the membership has wide teacher representation by election for terms of two or three years. Principals, department directors, and central staff administrators are also represented. Expiration dates of the terms are staggered so that there is always a large group familiar with the procedures and work of the group.

The Denver Policies Council

The Denver Council (165 members) meets monthly and has developed two main divisions of work. One division deals with proposals relating to curriculum and other matters of educational policy, and the other is chiefly concerned with administrative matters. Since the group is too large to

carry on intensive study and investigation, the council utilizes committee organizations for these purposes. A proposal submitted to the council is examined by a committee and referred to the council if the committee decides the project worthy of consideration. The council then acts on the proposal, sometimes disposing of the issue at a single meeting, but more frequently it refers the proposal to a committee for investigation and tentative recommendation. The proposal, with these recommendations, is then returned to the council for further action.

As a result of such deliberative action, several significant changes have been made. A study of the problem of utilizing community resources resulted in the appointment of a full-time "Director of Special School Services." The council sponsored a study of the problem of general education. This study resulted in curriculum committees which made recommendations for study units, prepared source materials, and made suggestions for classroom procedures.

The Denver Council's chief activities are concerned with research and investigation. Both the council and the central administration work in such a way as to safeguard and preserve the autonomy of each school. No decision or recommendation of the council is considered as final. Questions or problems can be brought before the council again and yet again for discussion and consideration. The council serves as an advisory body both to the central administration and to each individual school, but it has no authority to force acceptance of its recommendations.

The Tulsa Policies Council

The Tulsa Council is concerned almost exclusively with problems relating to curriculum. The functions of the council are: (1) to serve as a clearing house for ideas concerning the general education program; (2) to study ways and means of developing and administering the program of general

education; and (3) to recommend to principals and directors procedures and policies that may further the curriculum development of the secondary schools.

As in Denver, the Tulsa Council has no power beyond that of making recommendations. A list of the problems considered by the council will show the range of activities:

1. What criteria should be applied to the selection of activities in the core curriculum?
2. How shall the scope and sequence of the core curriculum be determined?
3. Clarification of terminology, the definition of terms.
4. How best to use the conference hour or planning period in the school.
5. Planning the schedule of curriculum and evaluation consultants.
6. Critical evaluation of each school's experimental program.
7. How best to utilize the results of the work done by workshop groups.
8. Setting up a program for a city workshop.
9. The articulation of the junior and senior high school programs.

The Des Moines Policies Council

The Des Moines Council, in addition to serving as an advisory body on problems of curriculum and administration, has assumed two other significant responsibilities. It has assumed control of the in-service program of teacher education, and serves as a working group for the solution of problems of concern to all the schools.

With the cooperation of Drake University and the central administration officers, the council planned a Workshop for Des Moines teachers. The University provided library facilities and one full-time staff member, and gave graduate

credit for work done in the Workshop. The city administration officers provided two full-time and two part-time staff members, and furnished the building and campus. The regular Drake summer school tuition fee was charged and, except for two hundred dollars allocated for the purchase of needed reference materials, the income derived from tuition was used to employ staff members. The council analyzed the problems submitted by the enrolled teachers in order to determine the special competencies required of staff members. The next step was the selection of the staff. Recognizing the dangers inherent in utilizing local leadership, the council has worked out a plan whereby leaders can be exchanged with other cities having workshops. In this way benefits derived from outside leadership and consultation can be obtained without increased expense.

The democratic methods employed in planning and operating the summer Workshop have been effective in increasing the spread of democratic procedures to individual schools and classrooms. The many opportunities provided in the Des Moines Workshop for first-hand experience and participation in the arts, music, dramatics, crafts, and science laboratories have given teachers more security in these areas, and have led to wider use of such activities in the classroom.

One of the important services rendered by the Des Moines Council was the sponsorship of a survey of community resources. A committee of the council studied the local community and published a mimeographed bulletin¹ giving teachers information pertaining to local resources available to teachers. In addition to the survey, the council has organized eight *direct learning* groups for the study of the community. Membership in these groups is open to all teachers. The groups study the community through excursions, the use of

¹ "Community Resources, A Resource Handbook prepared by a committee of Des Moines Teachers," mimeographed, Des Moines Public Schools, Garfield Building, Des Moines, Iowa.

guest speakers and, in many cases, active participation in community organizations.

The Committee on Teacher Education of the Des Moines Council publishes a monthly bulletin for teachers called "Review and Preview." As its name indicates, it carries accounts of past happenings and announcements of important events to come. For example, a recent bulletin contained the following items:

Announcement of the 1941 Workshop and a résumé of the backgrounds and qualifications of two of the staff members.

An account of the procedures used by a group of teachers and principals in studying methods of teaching children to read.

A news item about an exhibit of pupil projects in science classes.

Announcement of excursions arranged by the community resource study groups, a group meeting about records and reports, a meeting of mathematics teachers and others.

Personal news items about staff members.

The Shaker Heights Policies Council

The Shaker Heights Policies Council departs from the general pattern described for Denver, Tulsa, and Des Moines in that it exercises a much wider range of authority. It has the delegated power to make final decisions in many areas whereas other councils have only the power of recommendation. Over a four-year period the council has considered 73 questions concerned with the curriculum, teacher welfare, school organization, and school finance.

The Shaker Heights Council has directed a four-year project devoted to a study of educational objectives and the curriculum. The council enlisted the cooperative efforts of teachers, administrative officers, parents, and students.

The work was directed by two small committees—one on the study of the goals of education in a democratic society, and the other on the study of the particular needs of the students in the Shaker Heights community.

The committee for the study of education in a democratic society listed ten statements which, in its judgment, best defined the purposes of the school. These statements were then submitted to all high school pupils, their parents, and all teachers, with the request that they mark after each statement "agree," "disagree," or "undecided." The data obtained became the basis for further work of the committee and for community discussion.

The committee on student needs collected over five thousand statements of needs from students at the sixth-, ninth-, and twelfth-grade levels. These were analyzed, duplications omitted, syntheses made, and finally the statements were summarized in a series of twenty statements, such as "Learn to study efficiently and independently," "Learn to think individually and critically," "Have an understanding of civic attitudes and of the responsibility of the individual." Parents and pupils were then asked to pass judgment on the school's responsibility in meeting these needs. All were accepted as at least partial responsibilities of the school, except one statement concerning religious education. These statements also became the bases for community forums.

Five monthly conferences were held, again with wide pupil, parent, and teacher representation. (From 300 to 350 persons.) The topics considered were:

1. What are the educational needs of the boys and girls in Shaker Heights?
2. What are the educational needs of a democratic society?
3. What types of experiences will best meet these needs?
4. How shall we evaluate our program?
5. What shall be the program of studies in our schools?

Each meeting opened with a brief treatment of the topic by some well-qualified speaker. The group was then divided into twenty small working groups to discuss the question of the evening. The membership of each group remained the same during the five meetings, with a permanent chairman and secretary. Careful records of each group meeting were kept and eventually combined into a complete report covering each conference.

These reports were then turned over to the faculty of each school for analysis of implications for the school program. Special committees, made up of elementary and secondary school-staff members, prepared reports based on the material from the conferences. After approval by the Shaker Heights Board of Education, these reports are to be edited, published, and distributed to the community.

INCREASING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS IN THE GUIDANCE PROGRAM

For many years the administration of the guidance program in most schools has centered in guidance officers. In most cases two such officers—one for the boys and one for the girls—were appointed. The classroom teacher has functioned in the guidance program chiefly as home-room adviser. In many of the larger schools a psychologist was employed, in addition to the two advisers, generally to assume responsibility for testing and guidance duties.

In order to insure some degree of effective participation by the home-room teacher, most schools adopted the policy of keeping the home-room group and teacher as a unit for periods of time longer than a single year. In many cases a teacher was assigned to a group at the time of its induction into the school, continuing throughout the entire school period with the same student group. In addition to a large amount of routine work—such as keeping attendance records, scholastic achievement records, and making reports

to parents—the home-room teacher functioned as personal adviser to the boys and girls on both educational and personal problems. “Problem cases” were usually referred to the psychologist, if one were available.

Under such organization a teacher very frequently had contact with the students in the home-room but not in classes. Many schools believed that more effective guidance could be given by the home-room teacher if the teacher also taught classes in which the students were enrolled. To bring about this additional contact between teacher and pupil, several different plans of organization have been tried out. In some cases the home-room group for each teacher was the first hour class taught by the teacher. In other cases the home-room group was from the grade in which the teacher’s chief teaching responsibility centered. For example, a teacher who taught four or five ninth-grade algebra classes had a ninth-grade home-room. By means of these and other procedures, the additional contact was provided, but continuity of contact from year to year was lost.

Some attempts on the part of the participating schools to achieve more effective relationships between teacher and pupil will be briefly described.

Centralization of Teaching Responsibilities

In Tulsa, the Lowell Junior High School staff is attempting to increase the effectiveness of teacher guidance by increasing the amount of time the teacher and a class have together. In the former program each teacher had at least 230 pupils per day, with a change in groups each year and sometimes each semester. Obviously, teachers felt greatly frustrated in their attempts to “know” their pupils as individuals. They felt inadequate in their guidance responsibilities because of a lack of information about their students.

In the new program, several areas of activity are handled by a single teacher in a course called “General Education,”

meeting for three consecutive periods each day during the seventh and eighth years, and for two periods each day during the ninth year. The pupil programs are illustrated below.

GRADE	GENERAL EDUCATION	SPECIAL CLASSES
7	English, social studies, mathematics, science (3 periods)	Reading (remedial) Art Music Shops (clothing, wood) Physical Education
8	English, social studies, mathematics, science (3 periods)	Mathematics (remedial) Typing Arts Crafts Shops (food, clothing, wood, metal) Music Physical Education
9	English, social studies, mathematics (2 periods)	Science Family Life Education Typing Music Arts and Crafts Shops (wood, clothing)

One-third of the teachers are assigned to the General Education classes, each teacher having two such groups. These teachers meet, therefore, a maximum of eighty pupils each day throughout the year and are responsible for the guidance of the group, as well as for handling such routine matters as records, reports, attendance, etc. In some cases a teacher will have one group in General Education (three periods) and two special classes, such as remedial reading.

All teachers have a five-period teaching day, and the pupils a six-period day. The sixth period each day is used by teachers for such purposes as curriculum planning and pupil adjustment, integration of the grade activities, and articulation of the program from grade to grade. The teachers are unanimous in their opinion as to the effectiveness

of this planning period. They emphasize especially the usefulness of this time in dealing with guidance problems. The consideration of the growth and development of each pupil by all the teachers concerned with his daily program makes it possible not only to diagnose more accurately, but also to synthesize all possible resources into a consistent program.

The benefits to the pupil in having fewer teachers are very real. The students feel a greater security because of the more personal relationship established between pupil and teacher. Their responsibilities are centralized and made more definite. Lowell teachers report a decrease in the so-called disciplinary cases. Similar reports come from schools in Des Moines, Denver, and from Tower Hill where the centralization of teaching responsibilities has been tried.

The advantages of this organization in providing teachers with more adequate data about students are fairly obvious. Under such a plan, it is possible to provide far more effective guidance and to individualize a pupil's program to a greater extent. The plan has a weakness arising from the difficulty of finding teachers who feel adequate to assume responsibility for teaching in more than one subject-matter area. It also has the weakness that continuity of teacher-class contact for more than one year is difficult because of the heavy demands made upon the teacher in acquiring or collecting a sufficient amount of source materials for more than one grade.

The School within a School: Junior High School

The Lowell plan attempts to "reduce the impersonality of teacher-pupil relationships" by limiting a teacher's responsibilities to a small group of students. The Wilson Junior High School (also in Tulsa) attempts to accomplish the same purpose by insuring continuity of contact between teacher and pupil for a three-year period.

Each year about five hundred seventh-grade pupils enter the Wilson School. They are divided into two groups, with no attempt at ability groupings except for pupils of very low ability whose programs must be highly individualized and largely remedial in nature. This plan results in six "little schools," two at each grade level, and a seventh special group.

Each "little school" has a faculty assigned to it when it enters the school continuing with the group for the three-year period. The faculty of each group elects a chairman who is responsible for necessary reports of conference and classroom activities. These reports are eventually sent to the principal of the school and to the curriculum co-ordinator for the city. The chairman also cooperates with all other chairmen in furthering grade and all-school activities. As at Lowell, the pupils have a six-period day, and the teachers a five-period day, using the sixth hour as a conference and planning period.

The faculties of the two "little schools" of a single grade meet jointly once a week for considering grade problems. Each grade has a representative in the advisory council. The advisory council, which includes principal and vice-principal, formulates administrative, educational, and social policies for the building.

Each teacher teaches in only one area and, on paper, the Wilson schedule looks like the conventional junior high-school departmentalized program, with one exception. The fourth period each day is fifteen minutes longer than all the other periods, and is used for counseling and guidance in addition to the normal class activities.

This method of scheduling allows a flexibility that makes an interchange of classes possible. In all cases, English and social studies are scheduled in contiguous periods, making it possible to have cooperative teaching in these two areas,

or for a class to remain in session for two periods when this seems desirable.

The strength of this organization for the guidance program is due to

1. continuity of pupil-teacher relationships for the three-year period;
2. class membership being maintained constant for the three-year period;
3. a daily planning and conference period for teachers;
4. a scheduled teacher-pupil conference hour.

The School within a School:
Senior High School

An adaptation of the "school within a school," known as the *block schedule*, is used in the Tulsa senior high schools. Three or four teachers are grouped together and have a common group of students enrolled in their classes. The teachers in this block arrangement are at liberty to work as a single unit on a given problem, or to work for commonly held objectives by using regularly organized subject-matter materials. The teachers in the "block" meet for a period each day for purposes of planning curriculum materials, and for guidance purposes in connection with the class groups.

In the guidance program the teachers in each block schedule work in cooperation with a grade counselor and with the boys' and girls' advisers. The elective system of the high school makes it more difficult for a group of students to work with the same teachers for more than one year. However, at least one teacher, usually one teaching social studies or English, moves from grade to grade with a group. In this way the benefits accruing from continuity of teacher-pupil contacts are preserved.

The George School schedules its program on the basis of

"little schools" similar in many respects to the plan at Wilson Junior High School. The chief difference is its practice of grouping students on the basis of special interests. These "little schools" are called *sequences* or *divisions*. The special interest groupings are: language-mathematics, social studies, mathematics-science, and citizenship.

Each sequence starts at the tenth year. Both the class and faculty work together for three years. The faculty members of a sequence meet frequently as a group and, because the student membership in a sequence is small (25 or less), frequent meetings of the class and faculty are held. At these meetings the curriculum is planned and all group problems are considered. Wide variations in subject matter and activities are evident from year to year. The tenth-grade group in the social studies sequence of one year may have a program radically different from that of the tenth-grade group the year before or the year following. There is a high degree of pupil participation in curriculum planning.

The strength of the sequence plan for guidance purposes is due to the continuity of teacher-pupil relationships for a three-year period, and to the wide use of teacher-pupil planning. The George School policy of scheduling classes for two-hour periods every other day instead of one-hour classes each day also contributes to more effective work.

Core Courses in a Guidance Program

The Denver high schools place major responsibility for the guidance program with those classroom teachers who are most closely associated with the pupils in their activities throughout the school. These teacher-counselors have available the assistance of such specialists as assistant principals (also deans of boys), deans of girls, class advisers, school physicians, psychiatrists, and supervisors.

One of the major reasons for organizing core courses in Denver was to establish conditions that would make it easier

for teachers to fulfill their guidance responsibilities. These are the major provisions of the system:

1. One teacher, or a group of two or three teachers, is responsible for the work of a particular group of students for one, two, or three periods each day over a span of three years.
2. Conferences or planning periods are scheduled so that teachers have the opportunity to meet together, or to meet with other teachers, parents, or school officers. At these conferences the problems, needs, and interests of the group or of individuals are considered.
3. Responsibility for maintaining and using cumulative records of pupils centers in the teacher-counselor.
4. Teachers of the core classes are given both opportunity and responsibility for becoming familiar with the homes of the pupils and the nature of the communities in which they live.
5. The scope and sequence of the curriculum are not rigidly determined in advance; therefore flexibility and wide choices of curriculum materials are available.
6. Time is scheduled for use in individual (teacher-pupil) conference and counseling.

When the curriculum stems from the problems, concerns, and interests of students, much of the classroom work of a core group is direct guidance. In all the Denver core groups, the activities are planned by the pupils and teacher, the teachers believing that the process of planning has great educational as well as guidance values.

In the Manual Training High School (Denver), the basic frame of the core is planned by eleven teachers representing the fields of English, social studies, art, home economics, science, commerce, public speaking, dramatics, music, industrial arts, and psychology. The teacher-counselor is assigned to a student group for a three-year period. The eleven teach-

ers who plan the basic framework of the three-year core program serve as a directing committee. Most of the teachers in this directing group also serve as teacher-counselors for one or more student groups. Teachers with special training are called into the core classes whenever their services are needed. For example, the home economics teacher may be called in to help with problems of diet, personal appearance, interior decorating, etc. The directing committee has regular meetings in which the administrative details required for the effective use of the contributions of specialists are worked out.

East High School in Denver is working under a more elaborate administrative organization. Six teachers representing the fields of English, social studies, mathematics, science, and the arts are assigned to an entering tenth-grade group of 220 students. Three consecutive periods of the school day are assigned to the core, and one wing of the building set aside for their use during the last three periods of the school day. The rooms are equipped as laboratories for special work in arts and crafts, science, English, and social studies, each containing the needed equipment and classroom libraries. One of the three daily periods is known as the core-course period, and the other periods are used as activity periods—for special-interest groups, free reading, and conference hours. Students are frequently regrouped on the basis of special interest, or common concerns and responsibilities. The chief function of the activity periods is to explore various centers of interest. The schedule of the tenth-year program is shown.

PERIOD	M	TU	W	TH	FRI
5	Special interest groups	Free reading	Special interest groups	Group counseling	Special interest groups
6	Core Course				
7	Teachers conference hour	Laboratory	Laboratory	Individual counseling	Laboratory

The time allotment during the eleventh and twelfth years is decreased to two periods and one period respectively, in order to allow more time for special-interest courses taken as electives. The six teachers continue with the group through the three-year program.

Most teachers are seriously concerned about fulfilling their guidance responsibilities. Any administrative device that enables teachers to know their students more intimately increases the effectiveness of their services. All of the devices described have functioned in this respect. With the goal of education stated as the development of the individual, the dividing line between guidance and teaching becomes blurred. Broadly conceived, teaching is guidance. The schools in the Eight-Year Study have made a few contributions which serve to suggest a fertile field for significant experimentation in the field of administration.

INTERPRETING THE SCHOOL TO THE COMMUNITY

Schools of today are showing a deeper concern for the all-round development of boys and girls than have the schools of any other time. This concern is reflected in the statements of objectives, in the schools' curricula, in the evaluation techniques employed, in the guidance programs, and in the changing nature of the data recorded about students and reported to parents. Few schools are content with the single objective of passing out information to students. They manifest concern about the physical and mental health of their students, about attitudes and abilities, about skills in human relations, about appreciations and understandings, about a philosophy of life.

The school recognizes clearly that it cannot assume sole responsibility in most of these categories of objectives. The school has the student under its care for a relatively short period of time each day. Many other agencies influence

child development. The home, the playground, the church, and many organizations, such as the Boy and Girl Scouts, the 4H clubs, and the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, all have contact with our boys and girls, and bring significant influences to bear on their development. The school is probably in the most favored position to serve as coordinator of these many influences. Perhaps coordination is too comprehensive a term, but the very least a school can do is to insure understanding within the community as to its purposes. All too frequently the school's efforts and home influences are working independently; sometimes they are in conflict. If these two major influences, the school and the home, are to function most effectively, they must work on a basis of mutual understanding.

Our schools have always been subject to criticism by the community. This is not only a right of the community, but an obligation and duty. The school staff is a professional group providing a community service. A critical examination by the community is, therefore, to be expected and welcomed. This critical examination should be welcomed in at least two important areas: first, the school's policy, and second, the school's program. The privilege of criticism, however, carries with it certain obligations. Negative criticism, wherever possible, should be accompanied by constructive proposals. Negative criticism which is not motivated by a desire to see improvement is mere heckling, not criticism. If the school policy does not meet with community approval, it is not sufficient that dissatisfaction be expressed. Constructive participation in a reformulation of policy is called for. The school is justified in asking that examination of its program be made within the framework of its purposes. Critical examination implies the application of certain criteria; judgments are to be based on accepted values. The purposes of a school express the values and criteria by which its program is to be examined. The community must under-

stand the purposes of the school if it is to exercise intelligently its duty of criticism.

John Burroughs School, The Ohio State University School, and others, have frequent parents' meetings of grade groups. These groups, confined to parents of a single grade, are small enough to conduct discussion, to study activities, and to insure active participation by each parent. Although the statement of school policy is a responsibility of the school staffs in these schools, the teachers have the benefit of the study and thinking of the parent group. In addition to this indirect participation in the statement of school policies, the parents gain insight into the philosophy of the school, its purposes, and the nature of its program.

Des Moines conducts a series of panel discussions broadcast by a local radio station. The panel members are drawn from the school's administrative and teaching staff, parents, and civic groups. The panels deal with many school problems, ranging from philosophy of education to the teaching of spelling. Students in the core program at East High School in Denver planned and produced a radio dramatization describing the purposes to be achieved through the core course, their methods of work, and their triumphs and failures. Since membership in the core course is elective, the program was given in the spring about the time junior high-school students were making out their tenth-grade schedules. Tulsa High School has also used radio broadcasts as a means of informing the community about the school.

Parent-teachers' meetings are frequently used to interpret the school to the community. The last parents' meeting of the year at the Tower Hill School is conducted by the school "Assembly Committee." The program consists of a reproduction of some of the school assemblies given during the year. The programs are selected according to the value they may have for the interpretation of the school to others. This program is always one of the best of the year's parents'

meetings and is always well attended. Other parents' meetings at Tower Hill and many other schools feature panel discussions by students, parents, and staff. The speakers, whether local or "imported," all deal with some major educational problem.

Visual media have been widely used by many schools in interpreting school life to the community. The most commonly used of these media is the profusely illustrated school bulletin. George School, Germantown Friends, Beaver Country Day School, Tower Hill, and the Los Angeles school system all have used bulletins of this type. They give vivid pictures depicting many interesting school activities.

The full value of pictorial representation is frequently lost because of poor titles to the pictures. For example, a picture showing a boy and girl working puppets on a miniature stage is titled "Puppets in the Fourth Grade." In the same bulletin, however, is a picture showing a group working on a large mural. The title describing the activity is, "For Growth through Self-Expression." In the first illustration the reader is impressed by the interest shown on the children's faces but is left wondering about the educational purpose which the activity is supposed to perform. In the latter illustration the reader's attention is directed to one of the fundamental purposes of the school, and a dramatic representation is given of at least one way in which the school seeks to achieve that purpose.

A tenth-grade group in Des Moines made a two-reel film showing its method of classroom work. Teacher-pupil planning, committee research and reports, the use of the library, interviews as sources of information, the use of the arts (music, crafts, dramatics, and fine arts), and class evaluation of the unit were all clearly shown. The film was widely used among parent groups and was very effective in giving parents the kind of picture of school activities that increased their respect for the ability of pupils to do sustained work and

to exercise initiative and self-discipline. By focusing attention in the picture on the evaluation of the unit, the film pointed out very clearly the purposes toward which the group was working.

Slides, properly titled, used to indicate the purposes as well as the nature of the activity, are also effective, as shown by a junior high-school group at Callanan School in Des Moines. As in the use of photographs, the picture titles make a great deal of difference. A good picture poorly titled may do little more than give an impression of purposeless activity. A properly titled picture tells the story of both activity and purpose. While not so effective as movies, slides have the advantages of lower cost and less time needed for preparation.²

Exhibits of student products of classroom and shop can be helpful aids in interpreting the school to the community. As is the case with the use of pictures, care in making titles can greatly increase the effectiveness of the exhibit. A student-made radio exhibited with the caption "Made by John Doe, tenth grade," is fine publicity for John but tells little about the purposes of the school. The same radio, grouped with a variety of other student-made products, with the title "Special Interests Are Encouraged" makes the individualization of school work a reality to the observer. A table covered with manuscripts of stories written by the eleventh-grade pupils might well be titled "Literature Appreciation Through Creative Writing." Any exhibit of student products will be used by the observers as an interpretation of the school. The degree to which this interpretation portrays the purposes of the school is largely determined by the imagination and skill given to arrangement and titles. Fundamental purposes are sought through activities. Exhibits should make these purposes stand out clearly.

² For the student educational values to be derived from such projects, see Chapter IV.

School magazines and newspapers are also media which may be used to portray the program and purposes of a school. Most school publications describe many important features of the program, but opportunities to acquaint the reader with the purposes of the school are usually ignored. Titles to magazine articles, and headlines in the newspapers should, wherever possible, point out the purposes of the activity described.

These various techniques for interpreting the school to the community have all been directed toward groups or toward relatively large numbers of individuals. Although they can be very effectively used, they are by no means a substitute for individual conferences. The small school can, with relative ease, meet parents and other interested citizens in individual conferences. The Tower Hill School uses the individual conference very profitably. The specific purpose of the conference is the selection of the student program for the following year. The pupil, his parents, and either the headmaster or counselor, plan together for the next year's work. The pupil's record is reviewed, his strengths and weaknesses are analyzed, and the assets of the school are explored in terms of the pupil's purposes and desires. These conferences are highly helpful in promoting an understanding of the school's philosophy, policies, and program.

The many students involved in a large school make this procedure more difficult, but some of the larger schools use it with good results. The core teachers at Manual Training High School in Denver assume responsibility for such individual conferences. In this school, the core teachers have a three-year tenure with a single class of about 35 to 40 pupils. Thus long-range planning is possible. The core teachers arrange to visit each home at least once, and frequently more than once, each year. In these home visits one of the primary purposes to be served is the promotion of a sympathetic and cooperative understanding of the school's pur-

poses and program. Data collected from such visits have greatly influenced the formulation and redefinition of school policies.

Important and useful as are all of the techniques described, the individual pupil is by far the most effective medium for the promotion of community understanding. It is through the student body that most impressions of the school are received by parents and community. The wise school staff will use pupil interpretation to best advantage by developing in each student a thorough understanding of the school. The technique of pupil-teacher planning has proven very profitable, for as pupils participate in planning a program they become conscious of purpose. The close relationship between purpose and program becomes clear.

A CHALLENGE TO ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS

The effectiveness of a school's program depends to a large degree upon the skillful blending of the efforts of many people. The degree of cooperation of any individual is greatly increased if the goals toward which he works are clearly understood. Understanding the purposes of the school, however, is not enough. Each teacher must believe sincerely in the validity of the school's aims. The statement of purpose must represent the educational philosophy of the school staff as a group, and of each individual staff member. It is the task of the administrative officer to provide the leadership and opportunity for group thinking. It is necessary to coordinate the thinking and planning, as well as the teaching efforts of the school staff.

The thesis of this volume is that the aims of education are pointed toward the development of the individual. The individualization of school aims and procedures requires intimate knowledge about each student. It is the responsibility of the administrative officer to provide teacher-pupil relationships that promote mutual understanding. The func-

tion of the daily schedule is to make possible the achievement of educational aims. No worthy procedure should be rejected because it does not "fit into the schedule," nor an unworthy one adopted because it does.

In every attempt to interpret the school to the community the relationship between purpose and activity should be clearly indicated. Every statement of purpose should be supplemented by a description of some of the activities to be utilized for its achievement. Every description of activity should indicate the "why" as well as the "what" and "how" of the activity. The school is concerned with the solution of educational problems in four closely interrelated categories:

What are the purposes?

What media are to be used?

What methods are to be followed?

How is the work of the school to be appraised?

If the community is to understand the school, the answers to these questions must be made known. It is also essential that the interrelationship between purposes, activity, method, and evaluation be made clear.

Chapter VII

GROWTH BY TEACHERS: ON THE JOB

How can it be brought about that the teachers . . . shall see themselves, not only as servants of scholarship, but also, in a far deeper sense, as the creators of the national intelligence?

—ALEXANDER MEIKLEJOHN

If growth were to be defined merely as change, then it would be sufficient to report the changes in teachers and schools, and consider the task of this chapter completed. Our interest, here, however, is in the kind of change which brings us closer to the values in which we believe, and which have been stated in Chapter I. Briefly, these values are the ones for which democracy strives: maximum development of individuals and groups. Put as a problem in teacher development, the task is this: how to bring all the capacities of each teacher into fullest use.

At this point we are confronted with the fact that while there is certain to be development of some kind so long as life and the problems of life continue, the optimum development can be reached only if the participants believe in what they are doing. The first requirement for growth on the part of teachers, then, is a faith in the values that are being sought.

In the course of the Eight-Year Study there has been opportunity to see such faith transform teachers from persons who were merely "going along" into eager, active individuals who showed unsuspected powers. A case in point is that of a teacher of science who was not far from retirement age. She was on the verge of a nervous breakdown, and the principal of her school planned to relieve her of her work for part or

all of a year in the hope that she would recover. Through a lucky accident, she attended a summer workshop just at this time. What happened to her there can only be described as a conversion. She returned to school in the fall with a host of ideas and materials. She was no longer timid and harassed. By the following June, not only was she a far more successful classroom teacher, but she was made chairman of an experimental group.

Briefly, what had happened was that she saw a reason for being. She had found a new significance in the job of education which invigorated and inspired her whole life. This is one of the most dramatic instances of growth by a teacher, but it is far from an isolated instance. Observation of hundreds of teachers who have undergone a similar "conversion" leads to the following generalizations regarding the faith that will lead to greatest growth among teachers. They must have faith that

- their job is important to individual human beings and to society;
- the teacher amounts to something—occupies a worthy place in society;
- it is possible for their students to work hard, intelligently, and happily if the classroom arrangements are properly devised;
- the greatest teacher security will come from changes in education which attempt to improve the service of the democratic values stated above;
- there is security in revealing—to students, faculty and parents—the actual goals and practices of the school;
- the dynamic experimental attitude will always be more productive than any other;
- this dynamic attitude applied to curriculum building will lead to better results than repetitive motion;
- this dynamic attitude is essential to the best professional development;

every bit of special knowledge, ability, and interest which the teacher has can be used to an even greater degree in a dynamic, life-problem approach to learning than it can within narrow subject-matter boundaries.

To repeat, teachers with such faith will live their professional lives creatively and devotedly. The next question is: how does such faith get its start?

To answer that question satisfactorily, it would be necessary to make intimate case studies of thousands of individuals, schools, and communities. Although that will not be possible here, the attempt is made to present a sufficient number and variety of school practices to give concrete evidence on the subject. But each instance, insofar as it is accurate, will be different from every other. As a preliminary guide, then, it may be of value to propose two hypotheses which the examples will test.

The first hypothesis is: all growth toward values starts with a challenge, whether consciously or unconsciously recognized and felt.

This challenge may come from the teacher himself, from another teacher, from a pupil, from a parent, from an administrator, or from some source outside the community. It might be an idea for combining English literature with English history, or for taking up the problem of soil conservation from the point of view of two or more teachers of science, mathematics, and social studies. It might begin through the discovery of a glaring difference between the school's estimate of a pupil and his actual attainments. Maurice Ahrens, science teacher in the Manual Training High School of Denver, tells of a dramatic case of this kind in which a boy who failed physics and chemistry for two consecutive years was the following year paid thirty thousand dollars and promised a 10 per cent royalty by a company interested in

one of three inventions which he had made in the field of radio-electricity.

The challenge might come from visits to the homes of students, as in one school where such visits showed how abstract and useless the study of Romantic Victorian poetry can be to boys and girls who have no bed to sleep in and never enough food, clothing, affection, or hope.

It might come from an administrator who had studied new developments in education so that he was able to ask teachers questions, and provide them with study materials that would lead to revealing and stimulating discussion of present school practices. It might come from comments and suggestions made by visitors who had seen many kinds of school practice elsewhere.

Thus, if challenge is essential to growth, there must be both interest in providing it and eagerness to meet it.

The second hypothesis is this: all teacher growth begins with a discovery, some kind of revelation. It maintains its vitality in direct proportion to the sense of adventure and excitement which the teacher feels in attempting changes and improvements in the curriculum.

Such a discovery or revelation has come to teachers in all fields when their pupils have had a genuine share in determining problems, materials, and methods. When the fullest understanding and abilities of students are drawn upon, the release of energy and enthusiasm is often prodigious. Through such release one teacher of senior high-school science found herself giving afternoons and Saturdays to pupils who insisted upon field trips to collect materials for biological research. A teacher of art found herself with no problem of stimulation but with a serious problem of finding time enough to aid pupils who were preparing for a whole-school Christmas program. A teacher of social studies helped a group of "dull," potentially delinquent boys to find a research problem that led them to spend afternoons and holi-

days in the poorer districts of the city making photographs and interviewing people to discover the relation between crime and poverty.

The discovery may be more subtle in its nature than a change from apathy to enthusiasm among a group of pupils. It may be a sudden realization that a "problem" child has actually a problem of far greater magnitude in his home than any of those which the school is trying to force upon him. A striking case of this kind in one of the schools was a boy from a broken home, a ward of an aunt and uncle who alternately fought with him and with each other.

These illustrations come from actual experience. But granted that discovery comes to some, how can it come to all? How is it possible to arrange the school situation so that not *one* teacher, here and there, but *every* teacher is challenged to grow toward the limit of his capacities?

Admittedly, there is no perfect and no final answer. But in every one of the schools of the Eight-Year Study there have been attempts to find answers, and some of them may have wide implications. The great variety among the schools—public, private, and university; senior and junior high schools; Eastern, Mid-Western, and West Coast—and the fact that each school is autonomous, has led to differences in procedure in adjusting to differences in the local situation. It would be profitable then, if one could discover some common elements in all the circumstances under which teachers have achieved real development. Such common elements would have the force of general principles which had been put to a severe and thorough test.

PREREQUISITES TO PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Consideration of the schools and of many individual teachers in them seems to show certain common elements present where marked growth on the part of teachers has occurred. By far the most important of these common elements are

certain inner characteristics of individuals and their experience. Such characteristics may be called true prerequisites to professional development.

Self-Confidence

The first of these essentials is *self-confidence*. Without this feeling the teacher, like the rest of the human race, is not likely to move forward, to expand his activities, and to use all of his abilities. Constant fear of failure, fear of fellow-workers, fear of the administrator, fear of the community, fear of not imitating the successful example of someone else who is promoted, fear of change, fear of loss of work, fear of failing to follow the edicts of state departments or colleges of education—such daily fears are almost purely negative in effect. They result in thinking about how to be safe rather than how to be effective. In place of fear, self-confidence will come to the teacher whose fellow-workers and administrative superiors understand and cooperate to work out clearer concepts and new means of achieving them. With every advance will come a corresponding increase in the sense of freedom and release—freedom to think and do; release of all one's energies and capacity.

Feeling of Freedom

Beneficial changes are not likely to occur except under conditions in which the teacher feels free. The emphasis here is upon the word *feel*. As an example of this point, there may be mentioned the schools which were "slow starters" when they were set free to make changes. In some schools studied, it took several years for faculty members to arrive at the feeling that they could actually take the colleges at their word and alter the traditional pattern of college-entrance requirement courses. Fortunately, however, in others of the schools, entrance into an experimental study was sufficient

dramatization of release from bondage to give teachers the feeling that here was a real opportunity to make dreams of improved education come true.

Assuredly, it was the intention of the Commission which established the Eight-Year Study to set schools free. The colleges absolved schools from the heretofore required regimen with that intention. The administrative officers who presented plans for curriculum reconstruction were certainly made to feel that it was a positive requirement that changes should be made. Yet, however plain the intention, it has become more and more obvious that teachers, both in the secondary schools and in the colleges, will not deeply believe and effectively act upon the assumption of freedom until they have had an actual taste of it. At its best, the experience of freedom will begin with the formulation of the original plans for experiment.

Participation in planning and in making choices challenges teachers to take responsibility for the most serious kind of thinking. But within the schools it has been shown time and again that it is of small use to give teachers this challenge to accept responsibility, without giving them authority to act. Teachers soon tire of thinking about what to do unless they know that they can actually do it. This brings us to the final aspect of freedom—security.

As has been said, no one is free who feels afraid. It is impossible to protect teachers against all their adversaries, especially when they are likely to be adversaries of new ideas—of whatever kind. It is possible, however, to administer an experimental program in such a way as to build self-confidence and mutual confidence among the participants. Unfortunately this is much harder than to let things drift, but it is possible. It requires the administrator to be a skillful engineer in the field of human relations. Self-confidence, then, will be found where there is a community of spirit, where there is good-will, understanding, and sharing.

Faith

With the conviction that "I can do well" must come the conviction that the job is *worth* doing well. In other words, *faith*. A clear conception of the values to be served is necessary, but beyond that conception must be the conviction that the ideas are important. This is a matter of faith, and here again, the personal life determines the professional life. The teacher's whole being, his perception of the meaning of life, determines his attitude toward his work. If he considers teaching merely as a job, not fundamentally important to him or to society, he will not be likely to throw himself wholeheartedly into the task of developing professionally. If he believes in the ideal of democracy and sees education as a chief means of achieving that ideal, then he is sure to improve his work in proportion to his zeal for achieving that goal. Here, too, the emotional drive gained from sharing the belief with fellow workers is as important as the intellectual one that comes from sharing in the criticism of ideas.

Broad Experience

Among the characteristics that help make teachers grow personally and professionally is the sense of values, the perspective that comes through the stimulation of *broad experience*. In one large city the outstanding school principal is a former engineer; in another, the outstanding principal is a former rancher and band leader. Both men had traveled and had made wide contacts with all kinds of people before they became subject to the restraints on normal living usually imposed by most communities upon their schoolmen. Similarly, an outstanding teacher of English is a former steel worker; a fine teacher of science, a former filling station operator; and a vital teacher of junior high-school social studies, a former life insurance salesman. But variety of experience in occupations, in handling of materials, and in acquaintance with people, is only part of the story. Variety of experience is the stimulus, but it is the range of understandings and feelings

derived from that experience which is really paramount. Obviously the teacher's range is likely to be enlarged as his experience is widened. The capacity for facing new circumstances, the sense of adventure and discovery, the dreams of further discovery, all contribute to an eagerness which makes a growing person and a good teacher. Along with the freeing of the adventurous spirit, varied experience in meeting the demands of many situations can make a substantial contribution to the development of perspective and constructive self-criticism.

*Habit of Analysis
and Synthesis*

Another essential to the inner growth of teachers is a dual one—coordination of study and doing. Analytical thinking is part of this. Another part is synthesizing the thinking and putting it into practice. Or, to phrase it in a different way: a working combination of the habit of thought and action—which we call scientific—and another combination which we call art. One is a way of distinguishing the elements of a process of doing, the other a way of selecting and combining the elements of doing. To accomplish the first, one must recognize the greatest number of factors of any situation—their kind and their quality. To accomplish the second, one must apply this knowledge whole, rather than piecemeal.

With these prerequisites in mind, it will be profitable to inquire whether there are any arrangements or procedures by which schools may aid all teachers to achieve them. If, regardless of teacher ability—high, medium, low—there may be found some arrangements that generally foster the development of these qualities, then the inquiry assumes great importance.

EXPERIENCES THAT CONTRIBUTE TO TEACHER GROWTH

There are fifteen kinds of procedure that have notably contributed to the growth of teachers in the Eight-Year Study.

Every one of these becomes significant only as it deeply affects the teacher's inner being. It is necessary to re-emphasize this, for it has proved possible for any school to provide most or all of these means of stimulating and aiding growth, yet fail of the goal. It will always be necessary to go beyond the mechanics of these arrangements and to see that they are administered in a way to encourage self-confidence, strengthen faith in the importance and value of the work, broaden experience, and coordinate theory and practice by aiding the teacher to play, to do, and to evaluate for himself.

Below are listed arrangements or experiences that have played important parts in the process of teacher growth in schools of the Eight-Year Study. It will be noted that they are classified under two main headings of interest to administrators. The first heading—*Daily Living*—covers those which can occur through everyday experience. They are treated in this chapter. The second heading—*Special or Institutional Organizations*—covers those for which special organization, usually of an institutional character, is required. They are treated in the following chapter.

Procedures Fostering Professional Development in Daily Living and the Day-by-day Conduct of the School

Daily Living

I. Classroom Practices

1. Experiment by one teacher within a subject field
2. Cooperative teaching by two or more teachers
3. Cooperative planning by teachers of various subject fields—the Grade-Faculty Conference
4. Spring and fall planning
5. New materials—the enlargement of resources to stimulate larger points of view
6. Planning with pupils—new methods of work. This also involves counseling a limited number of pupils over a period of years, with ample time for indi-

vidual conferences; recognized responsibility for the all-round development of these children; and keeping, interpreting, and acting upon all school data on such development

II. Departmental Discussions

III. School Policy Making

1. Whole-faculty planning and discussion
2. Spring and fall program building

IV. Coordination of Schools and of Curriculum

1. Inter-school contacts and conferences
2. School curriculum coordinator or council
3. Regional and city-wide curriculum councils
4. State programs

V. School-Community Relations

1. Home visiting
2. Planning with parents
3. Exhibitions
4. Cooperation with other social agencies

VI. Educational Surveys

1. Committees for investigating special aspects of education
2. Affiliation with extended studies

VII. Broadened Experience Not Primarily Professional

VIII. Crises in Community and World

Special or Institutional Organizations

IX. Special Study

1. Summer school
2. Sabbatical work
3. Special leaves for study

X. Workshops

1. General
2. Local
3. Nominal

XI. Institutes and Local Courses of Training

- XII. Seminars within Schools
- XIII. Exchange Positions
- XIV. Professional Associations
 - 1. Meetings
 - 2. Publications and Pronouncements
- XV. Curriculum and Evaluation Staffs of the Eight-Year Study (including both professional and extra-curricular contacts)

Though this is not an inclusive list, it indicates types of experiences that have been important factors in teacher growth.

In the case of each item on this list, it should be recognized that to achieve progress toward particular values, particular kinds of techniques must be employed. The purpose of an experience will affect, and be affected by the form of experience. For example, the enterprises under *I, Classroom Practice*, may all be conducted so as to clarify the teacher's idea of what is most valuable in the educational process. But "Experiment by one teacher within a subject field" will quite possibly include a rather narrow range of values limited by subject-matter traditions. On the other hand, "Cooperative planning by teachers of various subject fields" must—by the fact that a variety of people are meeting and thinking together, and speaking on the basis of considerable differences in training and personality—contribute to a wider concept of values.

Five Steps for Organizing a Procedure

All the items of procedure will be effective in proportion to a consciously directed attempt to clarify values; to put them to the test of practical experiment; to draw out of them as many insights as possible; to increase the likelihood of success through an integrated program; and to provide every teacher with avenues for making his ideas known and for achieving recognition. Specifically, this means that any fac-

ulty group putting any of these procedures into operation might profitably organize its work according to the scheme given below.

First, Clarification of Values

through definition of the purpose or ideals of our society;
 through definition of the purposes of education—as a whole, in the particular school, in a particular classroom;
 through definition of the problems that obstruct the achievement of those purposes;
 through devising solutions to those problems, taking into account the contributions which society, teacher, class, materials, methods, and topics can make.

Second, Practical Experiment

putting the above to the test of experience—testing methods, materials, and assumptions regarding problems, needs, and the nature of learning;
 discovering, thus, the possibilities and limitations of purposes, materials and people.

Third, Insights from a Variety of Sources

from other teachers in a field;
 from other teachers in other fields;
 from pupils;
 from parents;
 from outside observers;
 from other schools.

Fourth, Integration to Increase Validity and the Likelihood of Success

through a whole, rather than a piece-meal program, achieved by school-wide planning, by planning for the school day as a whole, and by integrating work from grade level to grade level.

Fifth, Opening Avenues for Recognition and for Ideas from All Concerned

through committees on curriculum;
through cooperative planning of specific classwork;
through evaluation.

It is undoubtedly desirable to illustrate in some detail the procedures that may provide aid to teacher growth. Therefore the following pages report, and briefly evaluate these procedures and their various forms in the schools of the Eight-Year Study.

WHAT IS THE RECORD REGARDING THE VALUES
OF THESE PROCEDURES?

Classroom Practices—

*Experimentation in a
Single-Subject Field*

Turning back to the first of the specific arrangements itemized, "Experimentation within a single-subject field," it can be said that all good teachers in all schools are constantly engaged in this. But the significant differences between a narrow and a broad kind of teacher growth, through work in a subject field, seem always to be connected with a very necessary distinction: experiment having as its main purpose the intensification, the greater specialization in the field *vs.* experiment for the purpose of discovering and using the materials, techniques, and skills of the field to meet current problems of pupils and society. These are not always clearly separated in practice, but they are distinguishable if their results are studied over a period long enough to see the effect on teachers, pupils, and community.

It may be said that all the schools in the Eight-Year Study have examples of the single-teacher, single-subject fields experimentation. In some schools this experimentation is decidedly the most dominant new effort brought about by

membership in the Study. At such schools, it is interesting to note, the teacher's interest is usually focused on new means of improving and increasing specialization in subject matter.

The good effects of thorough-going efforts to improve a subject-matter course, as such, are illustrated by the experience of an excellent teacher of traditional English courses who became convinced of the value of the non-verbal arts in a search for means of improving the integration of her own personality. By encouraging her students to use many non-verbal materials for the expression of ideas, she found that at the same time she was encouraging a much greater response to literature!

The bad effects of regarding subject matter as a medicine to be administered by force were shown in the same school. A teacher of mathematics who taught a straight textbook course became, over a period of years, less and less effective, and was more and more criticized by his students. As other teachers went forward, Mr. C stood still, so that he finally resigned, feeling himself hopelessly out of step with the rest of the school.

In other schools, however, an intermediate type of single-teacher, single-course reorganization is to be seen. In these there is a primary emphasis on the subject matter, with the addition of more or less emphasis on life problems in connection with it.

Notable examples of an intermediate type—increased subject-matter specialization, with some or much emphasis on its relation to present problems—are the courses in world literature taught by Elbert Lenrow at Fieldston, and by Benjamin Stolper at Lincoln High School. In each case a group of students in the senior high school, selected for outstanding interest and ability, read the classics of many lands and times, hear lectures by the teacher, and join in exciting discussions of the imperishable elements of great literature. It is obvious to the observer that the teachers of these courses

must continually study and think within their fields to be capable of leading this work. They are scholars of literature and life, perpetually studying the subject. Through their study and through discussions with their students, many relationships between old classics and young lives are discovered.

In still other schools are to be found clear-cut examples of another type of experimentation, with primary emphasis on current problems of pupils and society. Notable examples of this type, where the teacher, although assigned to a subject field, begins with a survey of the personal-social problems of students, are to be found in the work of many teachers representing many areas of learning.¹

Studies of these and other examples show that the most decided gains in teaching effectiveness are made by those who adopt the "life-problems" approach. Studies also show that not all the requirements for success are in the course itself. There are external difficulties that can bar the way to the full accomplishment of the purposes involved.

For example, a teacher of English in a small school saw the need for relating literature to the life problems of his students. The entrance of his school into the Eight-Year Study gave him a chance to teach both English and social studies with a group of students meeting for a double period. As he grew to know his students and the techniques of discovering their deepest interests, he worked more and more effectively. Other teachers became interested, and it looked for a time as if the whole school would be revived. But soon all development was "frozen" by a timid principal who had his eye on the red tape of college requirements rather than on the evidence as to what constituted real education.

Another example shows what can be accomplished despite similar difficulties with an administrator. A teacher of English

¹ The reader who wishes to consult these teachers may get in touch with them by addressing inquiries to heads of the schools.

in a conservative, financially poor public school was deeply interested in the social problems of our time. Through experience in a summer Workshop she gained courage to begin her courses with a survey of student problems instead of with textbook assignments. Although her department head and her principal did little to aid her, she had unusual success with student planning. After another summer of Workshop experience and study of her previous year's records, she returned to school and organized discussion groups to clarify purposes and reorganize thinking and practice. This teacher learned much about human problems and abilities, and all members of the discussion groups are profiting from her leadership. In this instance, the strength of a faculty group overcame the timidity of the administrator and aided him to gain confidence in new ways of doing things.

A further example of success and growth through attention to pupil problems and interests comes from the arts fields. A man hired to assist in the industrial arts shop found the students making little or no use of the rigid, pre-planned drill exercises. He added many kinds of material and began offering students wide freedom in choosing and designing their own projects. His classes, which were elective, overflowed. Encouraged by his success and seeing new possibilities for all education, he then began to participate in discussions of school philosophy with teachers of other fields. Through his own discovery of student interests he had much influence in lessening the repressive power of academic verbalism in his school. His success has brought him recognition not only in his own school but also from a university which now employs him in its teacher education program.

The force of the last example is confirmed by the similar experience of a teacher in another arts field in a large public high school. She had been very successful in using and enlarging the interests of students who were permitted to elect work with her. Seeing the benefits of using many materials

on a wide level of interest and ability, she was concerned about including all boys and girls in the experiences offered in the arts. She found an opportunity to do this—and more—through her skill as leader of a faculty discussion group. Teachers from all fields met under her chairmanship to exchange experiences; to clarify social and educational philosophy; to define problems; and to outline concrete changes in practice. This teacher, too, is now extending her influence through a teacher education program, and has achieved significant recognition of her professional growth and distinction.

In another field, the same stimulus—study of student problems—led to similar results and recognition. A teacher of social science in a large public junior high school was deeply affected by the problems of her poor and undernourished children. Because of her achievements with her classes in both school and social agencies, she was given the opportunity to study at Workshops and to counsel other teachers in other schools. In addition, she made a study of teaching materials, and steadily developed a clarification of philosophy and practice for herself and others that has led to her appointment as a principal.

It is the universal testimony of these teachers that their own growth has been immeasurably stimulated by the questions and problems which students raise; by the aid of students in determining methods of work; by the constant need to discover new materials of many kinds, and new uses for old materials; by the increased excellence of student presentations; and by the effort to find new and more valid records and evaluation.

In a sense, the argument of the foregoing is a prelude to the consideration of cooperative types of procedure, for it emphasizes the contribution of a problems approach not only to the students' but likewise to the teacher's growth. It is scarcely possible to discover the real problems of students

without at least the aid of the students, and very likely it will require the help of other teachers, and even parents, to come to anything like a sound beginning of more effective education.

Cooperative Teaching and Planning

Where cooperative effort is attempted in classroom practices, still more in many of the arrangements next to be discussed, it requires thorough understanding of the values to be sought by teachers and others concerned.

But once the values of cooperative effort are granted, it must be realized that cooperation, like freedom, cannot be brought into being by administrative fiat. It requires careful planning and nurture. It will have sound roots only where there is a genuine spirit of good-will and a genuine attempt to reach mutual understanding. It will succeed in about the same degree as there is a genuine eagerness to make a reality of a shared vision.

One of the first requirements for the development of teacher cooperation is a shift from the old idea that a good teacher should be an individual star, to the new idea that only common understanding and effort on the part of all teachers will bring maximum benefit to students. When teachers of different subject fields and different grade levels meet to discuss common problems, a most significant kind of teacher education results.² New relationships and new em-

² For those who wish to investigate further into "Cooperative teaching by two or more teachers," the following references are given: The tenth-grade English-social studies course taught by Benjamin Stolper and Harry Fenn of Lincoln; the English-arts-psychology course taught by Mary Clendenin, Beatrice Van Ness, and Mrs. Ellis at Beaver; the junior high school core courses, and general language and foreign cultures work at the University School, Columbus, Ohio; the English-art-music course at Shaker Senior High School; the English-social studies-mathematics course formerly given by Loretta Wiggin and Stella Cartman at Horace Mann Junior High in Tulsa; the English-dramatics work employing a "floating" teacher of dramatics at Tower Hill; the work of the "floating" teachers of art and

phases are understood as teachers discuss problems from differing backgrounds. Often the most fruitful kind of shock is suffered when a teacher of one field realizes that his major objectives are identical with those of other teachers in other fields. Contact between representatives of different grade levels leads to a more fundamental realization of the need and the possibility of continuity in education.

Cooperative effort by teachers often takes as its focus an attempt to evaluate more realistically the benefits which a school actually brings to children. Thus it shifts the spotlight from the teacher as performer to the teacher as a contributing element in the growth of young people. This change of the spotlight is difficult only for those teachers who have found their greatest satisfaction in being classroom prima donnas. An observer aptly described one such teacher, in charge of a junior high school group, by saying of him: "He wants to be known as the brightest boy in the eighth grade."

Participation by all in what concerns all, is the motto of this way of work; therefore, any important change from rugged individualism must bring about cooperative effort on the part of teachers, administrators, pupils, and parents. In addition, if the teacher is to serve as a successful contributing element in the growth of young people, he must understand the individuals who are to be aided. In many instances, this means a new relationship between teacher and pupil—a relationship which can now be observed in a considerable number of the schools in the Study. It means that the teacher must know pupils—their interests and background of previous experience; their reactions to the present; and their hopes and fears for the future. It means that the teacher must be concerned about what happens during the whole of the student's daily life.

music in a variety of classes at New Trier; the social studies problems course taught by Miriam Huffman, Mary Kasson, Georgia Forkner, and Earl Kalp at Theodore Roosevelt in Des Moines.

All this is radically opposed to the idea that a boy or girl, sitting in a classroom from bell to bell, is a drop of plastic material which can be poured into six or eight different molds every day, retaining its elasticity throughout the process.

Concern for the whole of the daily experience has led to much planning by groups—for instance by grade faculties, composed of all the teachers of a single grade—in some schools of the Study where such planning was unheard of as recently as 1938. When a group of teachers dealing with the same students begins to talk about human beings instead of subject matter, changes begin, and they generally lead in the direction of more and more cooperation, since so many problems are so closely related.

As soon as genuine knowledge of individual pupils and of the salient characteristics of groups has been explored, as soon as teachers begin to talk with each other about the school experience as a whole in relation to students, then the importance of special interests and abilities among the staff, the whole problem of schedule, the matter of materials and equipment take on new aspects and importance. Similarly, when the nature of the child is seen to be important in the learning process, it is realized that only a fraction of the day and only a minor portion of the influences that shape children are to be found within the walls of the school house. Thus, there comes about a realization of the need for greater efforts at understanding and cooperation between teachers and parents. This, in turn, leads to more complete records, compiled with the help of parents; telephone conversations regarding day-to-day problems; planning meetings in which parents are asked to criticize the school program, to make suggestions for its improvement, and to study pupil-teacher-parent interests.

All of which leads us to emphasize once again that teacher growth would seem to mean increased efficiency as a teacher

through the development of many kinds of personal and social understandings; efficiency of function implies purpose, and purpose may be taken to be the development of individuals toward their maximum capacity, for social and personal good.

We also emphasize again the task of the administrator who would apply these principles. To accomplish his tremendous work, the teacher must be a keen student of individuals and groups in relation to the whole of our society. For this reason, and because efficient work requires skill in all kinds of personal relationships with teachers, pupils, administrators, and parents, many judges of teacher growth place personal, human qualities as first among those in which ability and growth are essential for school people. Skill in dealing with others is scarcely possible unless the individual himself is well integrated. Therefore, the first requirement for growth of teachers through any means is that they work under conditions which are favorable to their growth as persons, and that to be a good teacher one must be first of all a good human being. Observation seems to confirm this generalization and to make it appear to be a task for educational leaders to see to it that these conditions are present in their schools. That difficult, never-ending, always-varying, and highly stimulating task may well be the chief business of the school head or the supervisor who is to be worthy of his position, and who is capable of taking more creative responsibility than he would in the easier role of "big boss."

The effect of teaching together—meaning the actual presence in the classroom at the same time of two or more teachers—is first of all to add greatly to the critical examination of purpose and practice. At its worst, this arrangement tends to make teachers too self-conscious and lacking in spontaneity. At its best, it results in great mutual stimulation, improved clarification of ideas, and increased resources

through the different backgrounds and natures of the participants. It is highly useful to the professional worker to share ideas with one who is occupied with the same task, to see ideas put to the test of experience, and to talk over results together. But this can be done almost as well by planning and evaluating together. Although some benefit may be lost, much evil is avoided. In order to achieve the stimulus and the critical values of this experience at its best, it is obviously important that the teachers who are to work together so intimately must be friendly and compatible. Their relationship should encourage freedom and frankness without the destructive force of fear or suspicion.

Grade-Faculty Conference

The procedure listed as "Grade-Faculty Conferences" is to be found in schools where there is a common concern over the unity of the program. The term refers to all faculty members having to do with the same group of students. The ideal of such a faculty grows logically from the fact that the members organize to give attention to the human beings in their charge, as opposed to organizing to promote subject matter. This ideal is to make the school day, week, and year as well articulated an experience as possible. Observers who have followed the same student or group of students through the successive classes of an entire school day have often been struck by the lack of relationship between classes. Thus at the ringing of a bell, learners have been supposed to turn on or turn off their interest in one kind of problem, and give all their attention to something totally different. But serious as this chopping-up process is, so far as the subject change is concerned, it is still more serious if the bell means not only a change in subject but also a change in fundamental values and attitudes on the part of the various teachers. It is important that teachers develop an understanding

of this point. Quite plainly it is confusing to the impressionable young person if, in his first-period class, the teacher encourages him to ask Why? and Why not?, while in the second-period class the teacher's concept of democracy and education may be such as to make that teacher positively resentful if the student raises questions regarding why's and wherefore's. Again, one teacher may be unaware of personal difficulties or group problems that others see clearly.

In addition to these mental-health aspects, there are physical facts that may be ignored when teachers are not in close touch with one another. It is often true that students are placed under physical tension by being forced to sit for period after period. In some cases, serious strain results from assignments that require students to do their heaviest work of the semester or year for several classes at the same time.

These and similar problems of securing a better unity of values, and of assembling all evidence that will lead to better understanding of individuals and groups, have led to regular grade-faculty meetings in a number of schools. Among these schools are: Cole Junior High in Denver; Ohio State University School, Columbus; and Dalton School of New York. (At Cole, the meetings are usually not of the entire grade faculty, although they have the same effect since the "school within a school" plan is in very successful operation. Six teachers, from 6 different fields, have a group of 240 students and the use of 6 rooms to work out the problems of study, space, time, and resources through intimate acquaintance and flexible planning.) In all three schools there is a feeling of mutual responsibility and democratic method, although the authority and leadership of the groups may be variously determined. For example, at Dalton the grade faculty elects its own chairman. At the Ohio State University School the chairman is appointed by the Director and the administrative committee.

From the meetings of grade faculties, usually held once a

week or more often, come such benefits to students as have already been indicated. To the teachers come new insights into pupils—as other teachers discuss individuals and groups; new ideas from other fields for programs; greater recognition of their own ideas; and above all, a sense of increased security and heightened courage through the fact that a group helps to create and criticize plans and new departures so that the individual teacher has informed support. It is not necessary that all should agree on specific points, but it is necessary that all should understand and agree on what is to be put to the test of practice. The factor common to all in such a group is a body of pupils. This is in contrast to the departmental meeting where the common ground is a body of content.

At its best, a grade faculty provides to teachers a ready and sympathetic association which, highly professional in its primary purpose, is also highly valuable for the sense of camaraderie and continual stimulation that it provides. There is nothing more necessary to teacher growth than the feeling that there is a handy audience to which all ideas can be expressed, and from which will come intelligent understanding and criticism. The ideal grade—or grade-unit faculty group—is small, thus all can speak; it includes all subject fields; and it is made up of teachers who are personally compatible. It corresponds on the secondary level to what is beginning to take place in such teacher education faculties as those at Ohio State, Northwestern, and Chicago where the professors from all fields meet to plan a comprehensive program and criticize it in process.

Spring and Fall Planning

A fourth type of experience in working for better classroom practice, "Discussion and planning by the faculty as a whole," has many important contributions to make to teacher

growth. It is tragic that in so many schools the general faculty meeting is a boring and sterile affair. The following summaries of case-study material are illustrative of a number of points in this connection. The first, taken from a large public school, shows how positive the benefits of faculty discussion can be.

In this instance a teacher of fine arts, always a warm and sympathetic human being, became so interested in seeking the clarification of philosophy by the various arts fields that her effectiveness was recognized beyond the arts group, and she was made chairman of an all-faculty attempt to state a common philosophy. Through her success in stimulating all to contribute to statements of the really vital purposes of the school as a whole, she was instrumental in bringing about significant changes in the program. The advances in her own thinking and practice, and in that of the arts group and the faculty, were evidence of capabilities which she had never previously employed in such a way. Advances in the school as a whole extended even to a change in the heretofore rigid schedule so that one period in each school day became an "open laboratory" time. In this period students were free to work in any room in the school—to read, explore, write, paint, build, and experiment—for a day, or for as many days as were needed to complete a project. Highly educative and successful, this open period was handled by student committees with teacher advice.

Another case from another, though similar, locality, shows the negative results if timidity or fear governs a school leader who may have an opportunity equal to or even greater than that above. In this school system a principal, coming from a family in which he was the first to achieve much schooling, has achieved his place against great odds. He is on friendly terms with influential members of the community. He has succeeded in life beyond any of his family for generations, and beyond his own wildest dreams. Now, as teachers in his

school are eager to experiment and to reorganize the program, he lives in fear lest the community will not approve of new policies. He is a kindly man, but by guiding his school according to considerations of fear for the safety of his own position, he has prevented himself from growing, divided his faculty, and frustrated his ablest teachers.

The reverse of this situation is found in the case of another administrator. He is a public school superintendent in a wealthy community. To satisfy his patrons he had only to guarantee that his students would enter college. However, as he listened and took part in the Eight-Year Study conferences, there crystallized in his mind the feeling that the traditional courses were not the best preparation for the students—neither for those who did not go to college, nor for those who did. This man set about to organize faculty-discussion groups, and opened the way to all faculty members to do experimental work. Teachers were encouraged to go to Workshops, and new courses based on life-problems resulted. A core set-up was instituted in the junior high school. Despite the presence on his faculty of two extremely neurotic teachers, the complaints from notoriety seekers in the town, and an over-timid principal, the whole faculty and community are moving forward.

This administrator has courageously and successfully accepted difficulties as an opportunity to bring conflicting points of view into the light of reason. With patience and persistence he has aided all in the study and development of their concepts of education. As an example, this man, confronted with a loud minority clamoring for the complete abandonment of the school's new program, brought all the issues out into the open before his board, his faculty, and the local press. In person and through an exhaustive written analysis of all complaints, he won the hostile groups to a more informed point of view. In doing so, he proved the

strength of his professional integrity, and also provided a good illustration of how a community crisis can be capitalized upon for educational purposes.

Having suggested the possibilities of development through general faculty participation, desirable characteristics of faculty meetings can also be suggested on a broad scale. The most important functions of general faculty meetings are those which give every teacher a feeling of belonging and of participation in policy making. Every meeting should probably have before it specific proposals concerning something important to do, or not to do—proposals to be discussed, amended, and adopted or rejected. The program of any department may well profit from general discussion, so that it is not determined exclusively by that department.

Next in importance are reports on educational developments, national and local. Sometimes necessary, but of least importance are matters of administrative routine, announcements, and the like—many of which can be handled in writing or in brief contacts outside the meeting time. (It may be à propos here to say that many teachers have commented to the effect that they are sufficiently literate not to need printed announcements or reports read aloud to them.) It is also important to distinguish between matters of concern to the school as a whole, and those that are chiefly the business of a few people or groups. In a sense, there is nothing in the school that does not concern everybody, but there are many non-essential details that are often made occasion for endless, purposeless discussion.

General Concerns:

Topics for Faculty Meetings

The following are samples of some of the basic, general concerns of a whole faculty—concerns which have been discussed at general meetings with profit to the development of teachers and to the advancement of the school program.

Guidance, mental and physical health—both as a field for professional study and as applied in particular “problem cases.” Discussion to be led by staff members and by visiting authorities.

For example:

At the University School of Ohio State a standing committee on physical and mental health advises teachers, pupils, and parents throughout the year. The services of the school nurse and physician, as well as of the physical education and all other departments, are available to the committee.

At the Dalton School, the school psychologist is active in this same type of diagnostic and advisory service, and often prepares for general faculty use charts and records made from teachers’ reports and from individual conferences with students and families.

At the Francis Parker School, the school guidance officer is continually involved in grade-faculty meetings, showing how the classroom teacher can effectively help students with their problems.

What is the nature of the democratic society and the task of the school? What is our common philosophy? What are the purposes of the school to which all must contribute?

For example:

At the Ohio State University School the faculty began its service in the school’s first year by facing these questions. Each member wrote a statement of his beliefs. It was then read and criticized by the entire faculty. All programs were and remain tentative, in the sense that they are considered experimental efforts to serve the social and educational values agreed upon. The values themselves are re-examined yearly.

At the Lowell Junior High School in Tulsa, the faculty engaged for six months in a discussion of broad social and educational purposes, and arrived at a fundamental change in program (each teacher taking 2 subject fields and 3 two-period classes instead of 6 one-period classes) as a result.

At the Francis Parker School, one important result of thinking directed toward major purposes and the qualities of democratic living was the formation of a policies committee elected by the faculty. This committee played a major role in the administration of the school.

Articulation between all fields and grade levels.

For example:

In Denver, an officer of the central administration is assigned to work closely with the elementary, junior, and senior high schools in each of the five neighborhood areas surrounding the five senior high schools.

At Tower Hill School, the teachers of Grades 1-12 meet to discuss recent educational trends, profitable all-school activities, and adjustments from grade to grade.

At the Dalton School, each grade-faculty meets to achieve general understanding and profitable relationships of pupils and teachers. The whole school is unified through a steering committee made up of the grade chairmen and the curriculum director.

At Radnor, Superintendent Rowland has a plan for three chairmen of the grades of high school—7 and 8, 9 and 10, 11 and 12—who will work on the grade level with all teachers and themselves meet to accomplish vertical integration.

School-community relations.

For example:

At Radnor, there is a notable program of adult education under citizen leadership. Here 800 or more parents and other citizens come to the school one to two nights a week for

instruction in such diverse fields as clay-modeling, current affairs, and banking. Each pays a fee, and the bulk of the teaching is done by experts other than those on the school staff. This project creates much good-will and is no additional drain on the energy of the school staff.

At Shaker Heights a comprehensive study was made of student problems and school-home responsibilities. Students, teachers, administrators, and parents participated and listed hundreds of vital life-problems for both school and home to help solve.

At Woodrow Wilson Junior High School in Tulsa, educational discussion meetings with parents are a popular institution. Principal Bradshaw and his staff not only inform the community regarding school policies; they also ask help from parents in setting up and administering their program.

At Baker Junior High School in Denver, a home-visiting program is carried on by the faculty. Each teacher visits his share of students' homes at a time arranged by the families. In this way there is increased understanding between parents and school. Furthermore, teachers are also forced to recognize the kind of home problems which affect their students.

In Denver there have been increasingly successful vocational conferences and large-group pupil-parent-teacher conferences. A significant part of these conferences is the fact that contributions are made by pupils, teachers, and parents. By use of portable microphones a "Town Meeting" type of discussion program is made possible.

At the University School of Ohio State there has been an Institute in Modern Education for parents. This Institute was organized by a teacher and a committee of interested parents. An admission fee of \$1 was charged, for which the parents received three evenings of lectures by outstanding educators on the history, philosophy, and practice of new educational methods. Following these lectures there were three more evenings of small-group discussion on topics

chosen by parents under parent chairmanship and with faculty members sitting in to aid when called upon. Enthusiasm was so great that six weekly meetings were scheduled for group discussions, instead of the three originally scheduled. One important value of this extensive program was the participation by many fathers who felt that they would thus learn the truth about modern education.

Experiments in using new methods, materials, and evaluations.

For example:

At the Cole Junior High School in Denver where there is a "school within a school" program, 6 teachers, representing 6 subject fields, were in charge of 240 students, 6 periods, and 6 rooms of the school. In addition, they employed many arts materials and the facilities of a general workshop of all the arts. This Workshop was created by clearing a storage room and assigning one art teacher who was courageous enough to depart from an ethereal concept of art to work there with individuals and groups interested in a great variety of projects—from clay models to drama.

At Tower Hill a "floating teacher" of dramatics was introduced. This teacher was on call to aid any class in any subject field where it was desired to dramatize the results of study, or to produce standard plays.

At New Trier, "floating teachers," as well as a general-arts workshop, have also been introduced. Here, as at Cole, storage space was cleared to make a general-arts workshop, and teachers of fine arts are on call as at Tower Hill.

At a number of schools—including the Dalton, Des Moines, and Ohio State University schools, and those in Denver, and Los Angeles, the production of motion pictures and radio programs has flourished. In addition to the educational benefits to students from producing motion pic-

ture statements, many uses have been found for improving community understanding of the school through these films.

At Beaver Country Day School there is a highly interesting development in the use of the dance and other arts in connection with an English-psychology course. Miss Clendenin, teacher-in-charge, is a member of the English department, and is aided by Mrs. Van Ness, head of the art department, and by Mrs. Ellis, teacher of the dance. Expression by the students, as well as by master artists in these forms, is basic in the course.

In many schools, construction in wood, metal, paper, and clay in English, social studies, mathematics, and science classes is now becoming a recognized method of expression, on a par with words.

In all the schools in the Study there is a greatly increased use of trips and interviews.

Acquaintance with recent trends in secondary education.

For example:

- a. Reports from the Curriculum Consultants, the Evaluation Staff, and the College Follow-up Study.
- b. The materials of the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum and the Educational Policies Commission.

Surveys and other problems requiring cooperative attack.

For example:

- a. The interest-studies at Shaker Heights and Ohio State University.
- b. The listing of faculty purposes and problems with recommended action at these schools: Ohio State University, Beaver Country Day, Francis Parker, Abraham Lincoln and Woodrow Wilson in Des Moines, and in the Denver and Los Angeles schools. Once a faculty has located and defined its major problems it is well on the road to doing something about them.

c. The study of out-of-school placement opportunities by Prudence Bostwick of Manual Training High in Denver. A report of this study³ shows the many difficulties encountered by young people leaving high school to find jobs.

d. The study of vocational opportunities by Principal Wood of Garfield High School in Los Angeles. Mr. Wood makes periodic surveys of the out-of-school opportunities and needs of his non-college group. This becomes the basis for school planning by the faculty.

e. The program of assemblies at Tower Hill. In these assemblies students dramatize the social and educational discoveries which have the most meaning to them. A series of highlights from the year's programs is an excellent means of informing parents what their children are doing, thinking, and achieving.

General education—its place and importance compared with special education.

For example:

a. The clinics on teacher problems, and on general and special education conducted by Curriculum Consultants at schools in Denver, Tulsa, Des Moines, and Los Angeles. In these 5- to 10-day meetings, lasting 2 hours a day, groups of 30 to 40 teachers sat down with staff leaders of the clinic to define their problems and ways of meeting them. There was much helpful exchange of ideas among schools.

The use of time, space, and equipment to serve the agreed-on purposes of the faculty.

For example:

a. The control and resulting flexibility of use of 6 periods and 6 classrooms by 6 teachers and 240 students at Cole Junior High in Denver. (This is the "school within a school")

³ Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin of Ohio State University for Sept. 13, 1939.

idea, by which administration of a large city school can be de-centralized and placed almost entirely in the hands of teachers *who know their students.*)

b. The day-to-day scheduling of time and space at Dalton. A rule of the school has been to limit class recitations to a minimum of one or two a week so that there is maximum time for work and individual conference.

Policies of hiring, promotion, and firing.

For example:

- a. The work led by the teachers' council at Francis Parker.
- b. The faculty executive committee at Ohio State and the faculty selection of directors for the school. In these instances, the control of school policy, and even administrative details have been successfully handled by elected teacher representatives working with the administrator.

New Materials

Another, and sometimes unrecognized source of teacher growth through classroom work comes from the materials that are used. For example, the use of radio, recordings, motion pictures, and other audio-visual sources of learning and expression often stimulates teachers as well as students. Radio programs are designed to catch the interest of a wide public, and the topics of Town Hall debates, popular songs, and political speeches focus teacher thinking on current problems of lively interest. As a medium for fixing and dramatizing ideas, the radio stimulates teachers to see new and effective possibilities of class presentation. The same is true of motion pictures, music, the dance, wood, metal, clay, new books, magazines, and many other materials.

Especially does the teacher grow if he himself works with the materials in a creative way. For example, photography as a hobby has brought new insight into learning and creating, which, as in the classes of Victor Mastin in Des

Moines and Carl Bardwell in Denver, may result in greatly broadened experience for teachers. So, too, with the classes in painting given by Vytlačil for teachers at the Dalton School, and those in crafts offered in Denver through the W. P. A. night school with the assistance of Marion Miller. In less fortunate instances than these, teachers who have attempted to work with new materials under guidance that was narrow and limited in its concept, have learned only to be ashamed of their incompetence, or to practice a few little tricks that confuse and destroy the wide range of uses possible with any materials.

Planning with Pupils

Classroom practice can contribute constantly to the growth of teachers through full use of the new and growing emphasis on a conscious attempt to discover, record, and use the thinking of students and *planning with pupils*. This may sound absurdly obvious, yet it is all too seldom that teachers unleash the full intelligence of pupils *upon the technical problems of teaching*. Since this is dealt with in Chapter IV on classroom techniques, involving pupil-teacher planning, it may be enough here to point out that after conferences in all parts of the country where students have taken an active part, the statement, "Those youngsters often see more clearly, more freshly than we do," has expressed the point of view of teachers, administrators, supervisors, parents, and school-board members toward student contributions.

DEPARTMENTAL DISCUSSIONS

Turning to department conferences as aids to growth on the job, it will be recognized that they have long existed and need little description. They are still to be found in all the schools of the Study, and their traditional value has been the very positive one of increasing effectiveness in specific aspects of specialized work. A new possibility has been

opened, however, by the use of department conferences for consideration of *general* rather than specialized values in a field. An example of highly profitable departmental meetings in the Eight-Year Study schools is to be found in the work of Katherine Kinyon and her department of home economics in Denver schools. For some years, members of this department have been meeting to consider the problems and needs of boys and girls without restricting thinking to the traditional materials and activities of the field. Because of these meetings teachers have grown much more conscious of the problems of education as a whole. They have become able to state, more explicitly than before, the values which they consider applicable to all education. They have discovered ways in which their special services may assist in serving those values and in meeting daily problems of students. One result of this kind of study is the increasing use of home economics rooms as laboratory centers for short research investigations by a variety of classes. Another has been to make home economics teachers valuable leaders of group discussion with teachers from other subject fields who have turned from their specializing long enough to consider an over-all view of the general education of all boys and girls.

This example, unfortunately, does not represent widely prevalent practice. In many cases departmental conferences—not of the kind just described—have a very limiting effect upon teacher growth. At the least, the tendency is to confine discussion to narrow channels, especially when there is a disposition on the part of the chairman or the supervisor to impose a syllabus, specific texts, a theory of practice.

It is possible that sheer habit of thought due to early schooling, and the subject-centered requirements of many teacher education institutions and of some school laws, have also led to narrow and timid thinking on the part of departmental members. It is not quite respectable to think that

ordinary school teachers should have such universal interests as a Leonardo da Vinci, a Bacon, a cultured business man, or an Einstein! Whether for this reason, or for others, it is interesting to note that there are some general differences observable in the development of teachers in different departmental fields. The earlier and middle parts of the Eight-Year Study saw teachers of social studies, English and the arts (both fine and rough) taking the lead in general education—applying the benefits of all learning in attempting to solve all problems of all boys and girls—while teachers of science, mathematics, and foreign language remained relatively cloistered. It is also interesting to note that in the last two or three years, the teachers of science have begun to assume leadership in this new emphasis. This might well be a fine tribute to their training in examining, accepting, and *acting* upon valid evidence.

SCHOOL POLICY-MAKING

School policy-making, and the aspect of it called “Whole-faculty planning and discussion,” has already been mentioned at some length. Hence it is advisable to turn to a second aspect of its possibilities—a review of the entire year’s work and plans for the coming year. In some of the schools, this long look at the year’s work has brought about regular *spring and fall planning* and conference periods that affect the whole faculty. Where such policy-making is formally organized, as at the University School of Ohio State, all teachers and all teaching groups must make written reports of their particular purposes, practices, and results. These are then discussed and evaluated by the whole staff. A warning here: the planning load must be adjusted to the enthusiasm and energy of the staff. Quality counts. Overwork is a poor substitute for good thinking.

New planning for the coming year, which can include general directions, schedules, and teaching assignments, may

thus be based on a great deal of critical thinking. The thinking can be truly critical, since it is based on the evidence supplied by the year's work, much of which can now be seen in some perspective. If this spring planning, and the thinking which is certain to occur in the summer, is followed by brief conferences before school opens in the fall, there is opportunity to take full advantage of the most considered ideas, as well as of the zeal and stimulation of the summer.

In addition to the formal faculty meeting, much good has resulted in many schools from a highly informal association among members of the faculty, such as may occur at picnics and parties, and in faculty smoking and recreation rooms. These cannot be compulsory or expensive, nor too formally arranged if they are to have their greatest value. It is through playing games, sharing food and drink, laughing and chatting without regard to the daily pressures and differences in rank, years of service and salary, that workers in a joint enterprise learn to know one another as human beings. Insights into character, and appreciation of mutual strengths and weaknesses may lead to much growth in understanding the other fellow's point of view and its particular meaning or emphasis.

COORDINATION OF SCHOOLS AND OF CURRICULUM

Inter-School Contact and Conference

There are many kinds of relations among schools. It may be said that to make these contacts most vital, a sense of common problems is needed. This holds true in the successful program of inter-school faculty visitation fostered in Des Moines, and that of the Dalton students' curriculum committee. These and the more traditional visits by supervisors and principals are valuable in the degree to which the observation is consciously directed toward discovering leads for the visitor and his school to follow.

The nature of human beings, their life problems, and their learning are more important subjects for observation than mechanical aspects such as equipment, schedule, and materials. It has proved tempting to some visitors to excuse their own failure to achieve good results on the ground of mechanical difficulties. It is yet to be demonstrated that a faculty which is in earnest about achieving clear-cut purposes cannot go far toward effecting changes despite the difficulties.

*Curriculum Coordination—
Coordinator or Council*

As a method of encouraging teacher effort and bringing about aid and coordination, much promise has been offered in the device of a *curriculum committee* or *coordinator*. This is an appointed or elected group or person whose business is to gather suggestions from every teacher in the school; collect materials; arrange conferences dealing with the suggestions; and smooth the path for putting new ideas into practice, thus stimulating growth.

The existence of a curriculum council is a challenge to every staff member to engage in activity in this field. Inseparably accompanying the challenge is the need for doing something about it—the need for an avenue for expression, for assurance of being heard, for the possibility of effective action. This point cannot be stressed too strongly. Again and again, able teachers have been frustrated by being challenged to develop new ideas without having the authority to put them into practice. In some instances, teachers with suggestions to offer have even been denied opportunity to make them heard effectively. It does not take long for such frustration to convince the teacher that formulating new ideas is wasted effort. The curriculum council or coordinator can be just as helpful to the administrator as to the teacher. Such a group or individual provides a constant and growing faculty strength through shared experience,

and the wisdom resulting from group criticism and lessons of trial and error. Among the working examples of coordination in practice are the steering committee and curriculum director of the Dalton School in 1939-40; the curriculum council of Tulsa, Oklahoma; the curriculum councils and coordinators of Denver, and the coordinators who replaced department heads in Los Angeles.

Regional-Curriculum Councils

It should be pointed out that the benefits which come to the individual school from its own curriculum council can also be found in the regional or school-group and city-curriculum councils. Meetings of principals, supervisors, teachers, and officers of central administration in large cities, are necessary additions to the teacher councils. The newly developing functions of administrators as aids to teacher growth are many, and one of the most important of these functions is to promote harmony and understanding between those who control the budget and those who know what is needed in the classroom. Just as curriculum assistance and coordination in the school can help teachers state their beliefs, problems, and plans, and relate them to the process of learning in the entire local community, so a pooling of effort between schools can be given form, direction, and aid by the regional and city-wide councils.

In essence, the idea of a regional or city-wide council is to bring together representatives of elementary, junior, and senior high schools in the same section of the city in order to compare philosophy, practice, and results. The benefits of such a plan to the articulation of an educational program are obvious. It is not only a great benefit to teachers to plan their work with a heightened understanding of the past and probable future experiences of their pupils; it is also beneficial for them to face the evidence and the points of view

developed from experience at many age levels and in many kinds of curricula and schedules. For example, there is a general tendency in elementary schools to take into account the physical and social nature of children, and to provide time for more continuous experience between one teacher and one group. It is profitable for the secondary school to study the values of such experience as the elementary teachers have had. A concrete effect of such study is to be seen in the growing use of junior high school "general" teachers with the same students for two to four periods of the school day, and with the same group of students for two or even three years. This more continuous contact through a day or through a period of years enables, and almost forces the teacher to grow in his understanding of his pupils, and even to enlarge his academic scholarship, since he is faced with so many different aspects of so many kinds of problems in the pupil group and in the range of their activities. This practice of continuous contact is in marked contrast to that in many public schools where a teacher has five or six classes a day—200 to 250 students a day—and a totally new batch of students each semester, with no chance whatever to know them as persons.

The de-centralized yet coordinated plan of attacking problems is exemplified at Denver where the central administration has divided its tasks by regions of the city. Gilbert Willey, Curriculum Director, for example, visits elementary, junior, and senior high schools in the Lake region; helps teachers clarify their problems; and reports common interests from school to school.

As can be shown from a survey of athletic relationships between schools, inter-school contacts will not result in the growth of understanding and ideas unless these are conscious purposes, and there is the desire to seek continually improved techniques for accomplishing these purposes. Of all the ways to achieve the possible values, perhaps the most

practical to date has been the meetings of school representatives to define and discuss common problems and possible programs of action. Teachers have testified again and again that it is worth the time merely to receive the encouragement of knowing that other schools face difficulties. In addition, there is the inspiration of hearing about good workable ideas and techniques. It is assumed that school representatives will represent their entire faculties at these meetings, and will report to them. Meetings held in Tulsa, Denver, and Los Angeles have shown that such representation can draw from and contribute to the ideas of all. However, as with every phase of growth in any human being, there is no substitute for first-hand experience, and those who attend the meetings will get much more from the experience than those who do not participate. It is likewise true that those who take an active part in the meetings get the most out of them, hence the value of creating many groups so that each group can be small enough to encourage active participation by everyone.

State Programs

A further method of developing common purposes and organizing work is found in *state programs of study*. These programs, whether developed by teacher committees or by officers of the state department and institutions of "higher" learning, seem to have their greatest value in stimulating the disciplined growth of the individuals who make them. Without participation in the background thinking, the result in the foreground is never properly seen and understood. Thus the overwhelming tendency today is to give autonomy to schools so that each may deal in its own way with the educational problem. Every member of a faculty can then feel that he shares, and actually *can* share in defining problems and possible solutions.

This kind of participation is a triumph for democratic

values, since it recognizes the worth of the individual in the finest way. It is also proving a triumphant source of teacher education—in the Michigan Study, in the Southern Study and in others, as well as in the pioneer ventures of the Eight-Year Study.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The next division of daily-living activities which may result in much teacher growth has to do with the school's efforts to inform the community about its work.

There are many possibilities in this form of teacher stimulation and activity, but to date only three have been employed with marked frequency: *school exhibitions, home visitation, and planning or discussions with parents.*

Exhibitions

The nature and value of exhibitions vary greatly. Athletic exhibitions, the showing of art work, and demonstration lessons have considerable value, of course. On the other hand, they may lead to many evils, such as over-emphasis on competitive athletics as a function of education; teacher work replacing student work; and an effort to shine by superficial standards of comparison.

Home Visitation

Home visitation requires tact and careful planning, of course, but a good example of its effectiveness in teacher development comes from a junior high school in a large city. The school is located in an economically poor and socially underprivileged community. Aware of the tendency of subject-trained teachers to ignore the realities of current life, the principal proposed to his faculty a program of home visitation which would, over a year's time, bring every teacher into his share of all the homes. After faculty discussion and adoption of the plan, one teacher, of very su-

perior academic attainment, stormed into the principal's office and demanded that she be released from the obligation to visit. "I have taught here twenty years," she said, "and I guess I know well enough how these boys and girls live and what their problems are!"

After much persuasion and bitter argument she agreed to visit only six homes—enough to be a sample. A few weeks later, she came to the principal, and he knew she wanted to say something that was hard to say. Finally it came out, with a few tears.

"I have visited the six homes. I was so wrong about things. To see them with no place to sleep but the floor, no furniture but a stove, no gardens, no place to play, no clothes but those received from charity, made me realize how irrelevant a lot of my pet requirements for class work have been."

As this teacher continued, she gave eloquent testimony to the amount of thinking that a knowledge of the child's home can bring about. At a higher economic level there is also much value, as is found in the New Trier program of visitation.

Planning with Parents

Conferences with parents within the school itself can give manifold aid to teacher thinking. Common experience with individual conferences on problem cases, the attempt to obtain case history data, and parent-teacher meetings seem to point once more to this very clear conclusion concerning planning: the value to the child, to the parent, and to the teacher is in direct ratio to the extent of participation by all. Participation should begin with the definition of purposes and problems, continue into planning, and extend into the evaluation of results.

As an ideal this program would call for continual reporting by teachers to parents, and vice versa. Pending the time when parent taxpayers are able to see the great possibilities

of cooperative planning, time for conference must be limited. However, considerable advantage and mutual understanding can be achieved through such forms as the parent-teaching-as-expert at Lincoln. The parent who is a banker or a grocer is usually pleased to contribute as an expert in his field. He is also likely to learn much about the school by participating in it. Another way of making contact is through the grade counselor-parent conferences where one teacher represents the faculty. Still another is the practice of establishing office hours for each faculty member to hold interviews.

Cooperation with Other Social Agencies

A form of school-community relationship which is slowly and gingerly being attempted here and there, is cooperative enterprise, involving united effort by all social agencies. The mere presence of a Girl or Boy Scout troop in a school, or the practice of excusing children for church functions—this sort of cooperation is not enough when teachers are not participating. But when a teacher has energy for, and is given scheduled time for the purpose of taking part in the activities of community agencies other than the school—church, Scout groups, Christian associations, labor unions, political parties, camp work—there is observable a powerful effect on that teacher's thinking. As one man prominent in camp work said in startled realization: "Freer methods, working through youngsters' real interests, work fine in camp. I believe I could do it in commercial art!"

EDUCATIONAL SURVEYS

Surveys may be useful in connection with any of the efforts described above—all sorts of community surveys, for example. Because certain types of surveys of schools themselves

may become uniquely valuable, special mention of these types is given here.

In a number of schools in the Eight-Year Study and elsewhere, a survey of problems has resulted in effective changes in teacher attitudes. Some of these surveys have shown

- that in certain schools, while 85 per cent of the students do not go to college, nearly 85 per cent of the curriculum was of the college preparatory type;
- that vocational opportunities required a different general background and specialized training from that which the school offered (and only a small minority of jobs require specialized training);
- that students who were unable to do adequate work in their own language were studying a foreign language;
- that a high percentage of time was spent in academic, verbal pursuits and only a small percentage in the non-verbal arts;
- that transfers from school to school were very much smaller than was assumed;
- that faculties were divided in their views of what constitutes the democratic ideal;
- that departments had surprisingly similar views of what the main purposes of education are.

In every one of those instances it is obvious that the resulting "if-then" thinking is certain to cause teacher growth. For maximum benefit, the survey method should: (1) give every teacher a chance to state his views and facts and (2) give every teacher the experience of working on an investigating committee.

It is appropriate here to point out the survey functions of such extended investigations as the Eight-Year Study. One of its services to teacher growth has been the gathering and

exchange of survey data relative to curriculum and administrative problems from school to school.

BROADENED EXPERIENCE NOT PRIMARILY PROFESSIONAL

It is probably obvious that the whole nature of the teacher as a *person* is of primary importance. Yet there are those who would regulate the daily living of teachers in ways inimical to full, normal development. It perverts normal growth to force a male teacher to remain unmarried by paying him too little. It is a perverted view that forces a woman to choose to be an old maid because she chooses to be a school teacher.

Because the deepest values are not revealed in hurried, harassed living, wise parents and administrators will want their teachers to be as free as possible from strain, and will consider it essential that there be time for lying fallow, for leisure, and for thought. Since they want normal, wholesome, well-rounded experience for pupils, they will want teachers to live normal, well-rounded lives. Since they want vital experience in the classroom, they will want teachers to live richly and robustly, to experience the joy of creation. The latter is well illustrated in the following case: An elderly teacher of English in a large public school had been able, by the force of a lovable and understanding personality, to do outstanding work in her subject field. Feeling that there was much more to be done, she attended conferences on the philosophy and practice of the problems approach in education. But the most influential change in her life and teaching was that she also found a new joy and realization of her own capacities through the practice of the arts of modeling, weaving, carving, and painting. A desire to make these available to many students led her to take an active part in planning with other teachers, as well as with her own students. She is now the leader of educational advance in her school. This has come about though she has no official

title as a coordinator and receives but little encouragement or understanding from her principal.

The teacher who loves poetry and drama has a larger contribution to make than one who sees in literature only a subject for superficial analysis. The teacher who is physically active and who plays games has a larger equipment for understanding his active and fun-loving pupils. The teacher who mingles easily with all kinds of people and is unafraid of life can bring a real meaning to the investigation of the problem of human relationships.

PARTICIPATION IN LIFE OF COMMUNITY

Of the heading *Crises in Community and World*, it is obvious that the philosopher was right who said, "The only educational issues are controversial issues." There is scarcely any imperative more needed in education than the injunction to the teacher: know thyself and be not false to any man! Confusion is the real name for much that passes as stupidity, meanness, selfishness, or wickedness in this world. The teacher who is constantly struggling to understand the world in which he lives, and who is actively engaged in community problems, must of necessity be giving his intelligence the severest discipline.

A few examples will illustrate this point: A social studies teacher in a large senior high school has come into contact with reality, and has acquired the profound respect of his students by his activity in the Y.M.C.A. and in a political party.

Another social studies teacher, by an intensive study of the problems of migratory workers and their racial backgrounds, has influenced the attitude of his school on problems of economics and minority groups.

A teacher of science, by participating in a drama program for unemployed workers, came to realize as never before the social significance of science.

A summer study of labor unions in relation to management gave an assistant administrator an entirely new point of view toward the relationships with which he was concerned on his own job.

SUMMARY

It has seemed worthwhile to highlight some of the values of these eight aspects of daily living which may stimulate teacher growth, since they are sometimes not given their fair share of attention. The staff group or the administrator whose job it is to work constantly for the development of teachers could do worse than spend all the time available in nurturing and making these eight forms of daily experience meaningful, in pushing things along here, holding them back there; and in general, studying the question: who will profit most from what?

Of one thing we can be sure. It has been demonstrated time and again teachers learn and develop through these eight types of daily experience. How much they learn, as well as the value of what they learn, depends only in part on the nature of the individual teacher. Of importance, too, are the conditions under which that learning takes place—administrative and community attitudes, faculty harmony or disharmony, and the whole complex of personal relationships and physical situations.

▼

We now turn from the opportunities for teacher growth through every-day experience to the more specially organized, more formal, or more institutionalized kinds of teacher education. Since most of these are very familiar, it will be the attempt here only to summarize the impressions of many teachers in the Study regarding the virtues and shortcomings of these programs.

Summer School, Sabbatical and Other Leaves

260

"dry well" theory of education. The idea is to give the exhausted containers—the teachers—a quick re-fill, so that they, in turn, can pour the latest learning into their own students.

Other courses may begin with a listing of teachers' problems, and then limit the participation of the class to listening while the professor answers the questions. The curious assumption that "learning by doing" applies to children but not to teachers has caused many "A" students in summer sessions to comment along these lines: Professor Brilliant preached beautifully the doctrines of the new learning but he did not practice them with us. Or, in the case of the narrowly subject-matter-minded specialist: "Dr. Hairsplitter certainly knows his field, but how can I apply those wonderful things to my six classes of low 8 B's?"

Exception must be certainly made in favor of lectures when there is no other efficient and available method of conveying information and opinion. But, however many the exceptions, the two typical adverse criticisms reported are representative of opinion among some of the ablest teachers. There is a thrill, an aura of prestige, or a cash value to graduate work that make this a soft-pedal tune, but it is there, underlying all the academic decorations on the theme of scholarship. On the other side it is true, of course, that the refreshment and stimulus of new places and new points of view are always helpful to growth. Furthermore, a teacher who is skillful in defining his own purposes and problems and in perceiving relationships can gain much in a university. Significantly, though, he gains in proportion to the extent that his studies relate to his own problems. With skill and luck, a schoolteacher may gain the opportunity to work with exactly the people and exactly the specialized materials which are appropriate to his needs. In that way, the sabbatical or other leave for university study can be of true value.

General Workshops

In the case of the next in our list of institutional experiences—*workshops*—it will be necessary to distinguish three kinds upon which teachers in the Eight-Year Study have reported. The most effective of these to date have been the ones operated under the auspices of the Progressive Education Association. Beginning in 1936, on the campus of Ohio State University, the founders of this movement proceeded from the assumption that all work should begin with the teacher's problems. Hence, no teacher has been permitted to come to these Workshops unless he had a sense that he was facing problems worthy of study.

The operation of a good Workshop has included so many opportunities for development that in order to realize their value, it would be necessary to study them first-hand, or at least to read the accounts by those who have studied them first-hand. It is possible here only to list the factors which have seemed to stimulate the most growth.

1. *Definition of problem by the applicant.* This forces evaluation of purposes and practice, and brings the beginning of a conscious effort to do something to improve them.
2. *Re-definition during the first days or weeks.* By questions from staff members and other participants, and by sharpening issues and pushing thinking back to basic assumptions, a whole world of newer and broader relationships may be discovered.
3. *Informal relationships with staff and a wide variety of teachers from many grade levels, schools, and subject fields.* At meals, at work, at play, at loafing periods, the opportunity to invite one's soul in good company, and to ask questions and state a point of view—all these things help people to see new meanings.

4. *Opportunity to work in small groups on large problems.* In a group comprising teachers from several fields working on such a problem as, What are student needs? there is the actual experience of cooperative thinking and planning for purposes common to all good education in all fields.

5. *Absence of external pressure for superficial results—grades, papers, and the like.* This allows students to be occupied and free in their thinking and feeling without fear of “failure” if they disagree with the staff, or if they concentrate on those things they want most.

6. *Emphasis in all discussions on the fact that there are no final answers, that techniques must be developed for finding the best answers in each different situation.* This encourages teachers to see growth—their own, as well as that of their pupils—as a continual process.

Heaton, Camp, and Diederich, after a careful study of Workshop results by observation, interviews and questionnaires, say that there are five major classifications within which fall the statements of outcomes by hundreds of Workshop participants. These are:

1. Education based on pupils' present needs and interests.
2. The practice of democracy in the school.
3. A new approach to evaluation.
4. New media of learning.
5. Personal and professional adjustment.¹

These authors are careful not to claim that the Workshop has accomplished miracles (although, as already mentioned, some changes in teachers observed on the job can surely be called “conversions,” if not miracles). Furthermore, the authors do not claim to know that all the changes can be traced directly to this or that isolated feature of the Work-

¹ Heaton, Camp, and Diederich. *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Workshop*, Progressive Education Association, University of Chicago Press, 1940.

shop. It is convincing, however, to note some of the changes which 50 per cent or more of the participants themselves said were influenced by the Workshop experience. Under the first head, covering pupils' needs and interests, were:

Used individual conferences	76%
Made systematic use of questions asked, comments made, work done in class	71%
Used test results and personnel records	59% ²

Under the second head, covering the practice of democracy in the school:

Provided more experience for pupils in democratic ways of living	80%
Used pupil management of their own work as a way of learning	73%
Secured more or better pupil participation in planning work	69%
Made changes in courses in the direction of current mate- rials, issues, and problems	65%
Directed more attention to social issues and problems	59%
Became more sensitive to undemocratic professional rela- tionships	65%
Planned or taught school work cooperatively with other teachers more than before	63%
Took a more active part in faculty meetings or committees in working on the educational problems of the school as a whole	57%

With regard to evaluation, the investigators found that the over-all result of more attention to clarifying purposes and objectives was the outstanding one. In addition, the following reports of new developments were made:

More evaluation of a wider range of objectives	75%
Directed class work toward more consciously formulated objectives	68%

More frequent use of a variety of media of learning is indicated by the following:

² This and the following extracts, *ibid.*, pp. 108 ff.

Pupil management of their own work	73%
Newspapers and magazines	52%

Motion pictures, interviews, experiments, field trips, radio, the arts and crafts were among other media listed.

From these carefully collected estimates of outcomes, and from the deep feeling with which teachers speak of this kind of Workshop experience, it can be seen that there is coming about a most effective new development in institutional teacher education for experienced teachers.

Again it may be pointed out that beginning where teachers are and providing the best and most natural kinds of human relationships take the curse off this institutional program of teacher development.

Local School

Workshops

Another kind of summer Workshop, similar to the first, is that organized and held in a local school community, largely staffed by local people and usually limited in enrollment to members of the local school system. Des Moines, Denver, and Los Angeles began to experiment with this plan in 1939. The advantage is in making it financially easy for school staffs—teachers and administrators—to work together on school problems, but at the same time to be free from the pressure of the daily grind of the school year. A disadvantage of this form of Workshop is the absence of stimulation from a new environment and from staff and student body representing widely varied experience outside the local situation. One proposal for remedying this is to exchange staff and students among the Workshops.

Nominal Workshops

A third kind of Workshop exists largely as a polite fiction in universities that call groups of courses or professors' advisory groups by the name of Workshop. In so far as these "workshops" and curriculum laboratories give more attention

to problems of students than to the professors' special interests, they give valuable aid of the sort described above. Often, however, the limited concept of what is possible, rather than the actual limits of professors and equipment, results in achieving less for teacher growth than is actually possible.

INSTITUTES AND SPECIAL COURSES

Of the type of specially organized teacher education listed as *Institutes and Special Courses*, it can be said that the many good results accomplished by these means almost always suffer from lack of coordination or connection with the working program. For example, the inspiring lectures and discussions offered in Los Angeles city and county during the year are certainly stimulating to the teachers who attend. It is a wise provision that offers many choices, while requiring attendance at only six of the meetings, since those who attend usually have a special interest in the topic or the lecturer. Similarly, the courses in arts and crafts that are offered through the year in some cities, while sparsely attended, contribute much to personal growth. But in these cases as in the unusual two weeks' Tulsa Conference on Education, the important question is: What do teachers actually do as a result of attending?

The Tulsa Conference may be worthy of special description, since it is a new form of teacher education inaugurated by Superintendent Harry Gowans in cooperation with Tulsa University. Here, through the aid of suggestions from many teachers and administrators, a group of six "division leaders" are brought to Tulsa for a two weeks' intensive study program. Graduate credit for those who desire it is given through the University, and each participant is required to attend 36 of the 40 sessions offered. The daily program includes a lecture discussion by each division leader, and a panel on some topic of interest to the whole Workshop (often

including teachers, administrators, legislators, or specialists in business and industrial fields). This is followed by a "Workshop period" in which students read, write, or confer with division leaders. There is a period in the morning program for informal contacts. The afternoon is free for work or play. In the evening the division leaders give lectures open to the conference members at no extra charge and to the public on payment of a small admission fee. An important advantage of this conference is its brief and intensive nature. This permits those who attend to gain stimulation and aid in planning how to go about solving their problems. It also leaves most of the summer free for other experience. On the other hand, its brevity is a handicap to association and thinking which require a longer time for maturing.

SEMINARS WITHIN SCHOOLS

A fourth type of specially organized teacher education is to be found in school *seminars*, designed especially for new teachers, but open to all teachers in the school. At the Ohio State University School such a seminar meets for two hours or more weekly. It is in charge of the director or one of the most experienced teachers. It is interesting to note that this seminar was begun because of the expressed desire of new teachers for orientation to the whole *rationale* of the experimental program. The vitality of this seminar, like that of all learning experience, seems to be in direct proportion to the extent of help which the student members of the group can obtain in discovering and defining their most pressing problems, and in planning ways to do something about them. An additional benefit to all concerned has come through the spring report of this seminar in which the group gives rigorous criticism of the philosophy and practice of the school as the members have known it. This not only engages the keenest attention to work going on, and to the need for basic

thinking by the younger staff members, but it also challenges the experienced staff to meet a fresh point of view.

EXCHANGE POSITIONS

It is enough, perhaps, merely to mention the fifth category of *exchange positions*. Seldom, if ever, used in the Eight-Year Study schools, it is potentially an important instrument for bringing to a faculty a fresh and critical point of view. After a year or two in another institution, a teacher can return to his home grounds with many new insights and a clearer perspective.

PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

Meetings

The sixth type of specially organized education comes under the classification of *professional Associations*, with its two branches of Meetings and Publications. It is sanctified by long use, and generally occupies the position of a household pet whose infirmities are excused because it has become an accustomed part of the family. It is quite usual to hear people say about the meetings, "I go to see old friends" or, "The really important conferences take place in the hotel corridors or in somebody's room." This may be true for many or most of the participants who have "arrived" or who are professionally jaded, but it is not true of other thousands who attend to hear the latest developments in the field discussed. For them, the meetings seem to have some value through the reportorial functions of speakers, and as exhibitions of the Big Names in Person. As meetings increase in size, it becomes nearly impossible to provide for fruitful exchanges between speaker and audience; hence, provision is made for "section" groups. In some regional (as opposed to national) professional meetings, a most interesting device has materially improved the conference. It is the holding of at least four section meetings in succession on the same prob-

lem. This allows leader and group to develop some common understandings and a heightened sense of what the problems really are.

Publications

With regard to professional publications, the best analysis has been made by Mildred Biddick in her book *This Business of Writing for Teachers*.³

After an intensive study, Miss Biddick came to a conclusion significantly consonant with that reached in studies of other forms of teacher development: the authors—those who do the thinking and the writing—profit most; those who read will profit in the degree to which they react to the materials and think for themselves.

This principle, which might be called “development through participation,” accounts for a difficulty in achieving teacher growth by means of pronouncements of national committees or of outstanding persons in the educational world. The Cardinal Principles, the popular slogans of “Correlation” and “Integration,” documents from the Briarcliffe Conference and other statements and edicts often reveal much good thinking. But what is done *for* the teacher can never have the same effect on growth as what the teacher does for himself.

The most valuable kinds of writing for teacher growth are probably those which present facts or statements of philosophy so simply and clearly that teachers who wish to compare their own data or reasoning with others, find something comparable to their own experience. Words, such as the ones in this chapter, are symbols of concepts based on experience. Lacking common experience, the reader can only see that the writer believes that something needs to be discussed or reported. What this “something” is, and more especially

³ Biddick, Mildred, *This Business of Writing for Teachers*, Denver: Department of Research and Curriculum, Denver Public Schools, 1939, mimeographed.

any judgment of its value, must depend upon sharing the experience. For example, some Central American Indians—great runners whom Enrique Aguirre wished to take to the Olympic games—were frightened by a glowing description of a transatlantic steamship because, as they said, “it is a big house, and a big house must surely sink in the water.”

SPECIAL CONSULTANTS

With regard to the final type of specially organized teacher-education service—that of special consultants such as the Eight-Year Study Staffs in Curriculum, Evaluation, Records and Reports, and the College Follow-up Study—we may objectively conclude that there are some unique values. Appreciation from teachers and administrators has been so generous that it is tempting to quote their letters, but perhaps it is better to examine results in actual practice in order to see what effects this service can have.

Such examination would seem to show that the development of philosophy, the reconstruction of departmental purpose and practice, and the introduction of new scheduling have been the concrete results of staff visits to one junior high school. The plan of in-service development in several cities has been materially affected by reports and advice of the visiting Consultants. Above all, it appears that both negative and positive criticism from a person with no local stake and no personal ax to grind, can be of value to teachers and administrators who welcome a point of view not likely to be influenced by local broils or friendships. Many of the Eight-Year Study school people have confessed that a word of encouragement and understanding at a particular time led them forward in their development when otherwise they might have given up in despair.

Curriculum Staff

Since the Curriculum Staff, like the other arms of the Commission, had no authority and no desire to impose a

ready-made program, its services were given and valued according to what could be done to help teachers and others improve their work. It may be of interest to mention the major types of service given, and tell something of their values and uses to the staffs of the schools in the Study.

"Messenger-Boy" Service: Oral reports were given of work in other schools; of trends in thinking, new materials and methods; of topics; of presentation and evaluation; and of recent literature for both professional improvement and class use.

This service was called for by almost all the participating schools, although it should be noted here that the 6 university schools, 8 of the 13 private schools, and 2 of the 10 public schools called for little or nothing else. Of these 16 schools, 1—a public school—began to call for more service at the very end of the Study.

The value to teachers of an oral report of work in other schools came chiefly through the opportunity it provided for questions. Through discussion there could evolve a closer understanding of the real nature and meaning of the material reported. From such discussion there often emerged suggestions that could be tried in the school hearing the report (never in identical form, however). Scheduling, topics of study, new relations between subject fields, materials, equipment, and human relationships were usually the most interesting items to the audience.

Class Visits: These gave the curriculum staff some idea of the physical plant, the clothing of the children, and the spiritual atmosphere of the school. Occasionally it was clear that the classroom work was markedly better or worse than the claims made for it. Where this helped the Consultants to talk in terms of actual local conditions, it was valuable in the task of stimulating and informing teachers. On the negative side, class visits sometimes seemed to confirm the teachers' opinion that they were being inspected and judged. When this happened, a very difficult barrier was erected be-

tween the Consultant and the teacher, just as the fear of a failing grade or a severe remark erects a wall between pupil and teacher.

Talks and Lectures: During the early part of the Curriculum Staff's years of service it was not uncommon for a member to be taken to a classroom at eight o'clock in the morning, led before a group of sleepy teachers suffering from early morning aggravation, and hear the principal say, "Dr. So-and-so will now address us." Naturally, such talks, with both audience and speaker quite unprepared, were not always a great aid to teacher development.

As schools and Consultants grew more skillful in applying consultative service, talks and lectures were made of greater value by collecting in advance questions which the audience wished to hear discussed. The public schools, particularly those of Tulsa, Des Moines, and Denver, made much use of this consultative service with audiences of teachers, administrators, school board members, and parents. As a temporary stimulus, perhaps, such talks and lectures made some contribution to teacher growth. But only in cases where specific programs of action were indicated and adopted did such service have tangible results.

Demonstrations: In a number of the public schools there was a demand for consultants to teach demonstration lessons. It grew from a variety of sources. One was a simple belief that a philosophy of society and education, methods and materials, presentations and evaluations could be done up in a parcel and displayed in one class period. Another source of demand may have come from the feeling, "Well, these Consultants think they know so much, let's see them do it." Another, quite valid source is the realization that actions talk louder and sometimes say more than words. In almost every case, demonstrations were enthusiastically received. All in all, however, a one-period demonstration, where teacher and class do not know one another and where the

audience is acutely critical, is neither natural nor a very fruitful opportunity to stimulate teacher growth.

Conferences: Conferences on personal problems, on subject problems, on administrative problems, and on broad, inclusive problems, have probably been the heart of the Curriculum Staff work. During conferences it is possible for teachers to state their real concerns and receive particularized, personalized help. The greatest service to teacher growth can come when the Consultant is able to ask the questions which enable the group or individuals to clarify their own thinking—to define purposes better, to recognize the obstacles which are the real hindrances to progress, to see possible methods of attack on those obstacles. A little more self-confidence, a few clues to new relationships and concepts, the beginning of a list of next steps to take—these have been the aids to teacher growth emerging from such conferences.

Of basic importance has been the aid given to schools and teachers in re-formulating objectives.⁴ Of course, statements of objectives existed in each school even before their entry into the Study, but there are many reasons why it has been desirable to re-state them. Among these reasons are the following: (1) Frequently the statements were made up by a relatively small committee of teachers, and had never been more than words to the main body of the rank and file who had to breathe life into them; (2) faculty personnel has a way of changing, and each new teacher ought to have a share with other faculty members in thinking about common purposes; (3) statements of purposes were often in general form so that they were of no help in deciding problems of content or method; (4) in other cases, statements of objectives had been used so much that the words had worn smooth and had lost their bite, and (5) in some schools the teachers

⁴ Here much credit is due to the Evaluation Staff, which stressed this work from the time of its first visits to the schools.

had grown in their insights into their social function, and had outgrown their earlier statements of objectives. Regardless of the reason for re-stating objectives, the members of the Curriculum Staff came to believe that re-statement at regular intervals was essential. Therefore, discussions with faculties and smaller groups of teachers often dealt with objectives. It sometimes happened that conflicts in the points of view of departments and teachers could thus be ironed out.

Time after time, Staff members have been asked by administrators, "Won't you spend some time with Miss X and Mr. Y? They are key people in our faculty, and so far they have not gone along with the new program." Sometimes Miss X and Mr. Y were adamant in their decision to have nothing to do with new programs; they were quite satisfied with the teaching and their prestige in the existing order, and the Staff member had nothing to show for an unpleasant hour or two. In many instances, on the other hand, when the Consultant could find some graceful line of retreat—or advance—for the teacher, changes have occurred either at once or gradually. There have been times, however, especially in the early days of the Staff's work, when conferences were scheduled with whatever teachers could be freed at that hour. Under these circumstances, the missionary function seldom paid high dividends.

Clinics: As operated in Tulsa, Denver, and Los Angeles, clinics or daily conferences, lasting a week or two weeks during the school year, provide many benefits. While teachers come together, substitutes paid by the boards of education take over their classes. They have thus been able to receive the value of stimulus and exchange—not only from the Curriculum Consultant, but, as in Workshops, from one another.

Clearing-House and Research: At least twice, efforts were made by the Staff to set up a clearing-house for ideas and

materials, but in both instances they failed because teachers are busy people. One plan was to prepare a printed bulletin which would draw from the schools for its materials, and would be distributed to the teachers. Teachers were seemingly too busy to write up their accomplishments and their problems. The other plan was for a Staff member to locate outstanding units of work, secure copies of them, and distribute copies for other teachers to study, in return for which they were asked to make criticisms. Ample units were collected and most teachers seemed anxious to receive them. In fact, they asked for so many that the packages which went out were quite bulky. But few criticisms came back, and subsequent visits disclosed that in many cases the recipient had been over-awed by the size of the bundle and had put it at the back of the desk to await that hypothetical day "when I get some time." In spite of the inherent difficulties, however, a portion of the work and thinking that has gone on in the member schools of the Study has found its way into print in periodicals, some of the arrangements having been made by members of the Curriculum Staff.

One of the services for which some teachers asked was somewhat neglected. This was the function of a research specialist who would compile bibliographies and dig out materials useful to teachers. Some effort was made to meet specific requests, but the schools were told that since research of this kind required a considerable amount of time, it would have to be time gained at the expense of visits to the schools.

Letters Summarizing Visits: In these letters, Curriculum Consultants have attempted to high-light the strengths and weaknesses which they observed during their visits to schools. Written to administrative officers responsible for the visits, the letters have been aids to teacher growth when they have helped point to an administrative device for encouraging teacher thinking and experiment, or when they

have called attention to individuals whose work needed special help or merited special recognition.

Uses of the Curriculum Staff by Specific Schools: Some of the uses of Curriculum Staff members by specific schools do not fall in any of the categories above but are interesting illustrations of the possibilities of these types of service.

In Des Moines, participation in the Eight-Year Study was confined at first to a part of Roosevelt High School, but soon the ferment of experimentation spread to other schools. By 1938 more extended cooperative planning and teaching was going on in the ten junior and senior high schools of the city, but the teachers involved were a minority in each building and, not knowing of the similar work in other buildings, many of them felt quite isolated and alone. That year, during one of the visits of several Staff members to Des Moines, a meeting was arranged—with one of their number as chairman—to which were invited all those teachers then working in, or planning to develop fusion courses. More than two hundred teachers came at 4:30, met until 6:00; had dinner together, and continued their meeting until after 10:00. It was partly an experience meeting and partly a discussion of the principles involved in cooperative teaching, but one of its chief values was the sense of unity which the participants gained.

Then there was the committee of teachers with whom Mr. Giles worked for a week in Tulsa. Theirs was a specific problem of their own curriculum, but out of their work and the difficulties they encountered came recommendations of general concern to all secondary school teachers in Tulsa.

Curriculum Recommendations

The members of the committee who met with Mr. Giles during the week of November 6-10 drew up a set of curriculum recommendations. These recommendations were discussed and revised by the Curriculum Council on December 4. They are now pre-

sented to teachers for their consideration. Suggestions for further revision or clarification will be welcomed by the Council. Any group of teachers wishing to add further recommendations are urged to do so.

The recommendations are as follows:

1. that plans for organization of new curriculum developments by schools or departments, whether in general education or in the elective fields, be submitted to the Curriculum Council in advance;
 2. that more use be made of cooperative teacher planning, and that this opportunity be extended to all teachers as soon as possible;
 3. that all secondary schools discuss the desirability of re-allocating time so that teachers may have a daily conference period preceding the first hour class. This conference period is not to interfere with the daily planning period for small groups of teachers;
 4. that there be more emphasis on first-hand learning experience in local secondary schools;
 5. that meetings for all teachers be scheduled in each building for further study and development of the Tulsa curriculum program;
 6. that the schools investigate the need for a full-time director of curriculum;
 7. that consideration be given to plans for heterogeneous grouping of pupils for next year, with provision for remedial instruction as needed by individual pupils;
 8. that more teachers attend workshops;
 9. that more small-group conferences, similar to the one experienced by the committee working with Mr. Giles, be made available on a wide scale to other teachers;
 10. that there be inter-school visitation among teachers.
- Note: The Curriculum Council requests that the entire faculty in each building discuss and vote upon these recommendations one at a time, and that the results in this discussion and vote be reported to Mr. Shepherd by the building representative before the Christmas holiday.⁵

⁵ From a letter from the Tulsa Curriculum Council to school staffs.

Finally there were the curriculum clinics held in Denver coincidentally with the visits of members of the Staff so that they might serve as chairmen of some of the groups. By extensive use of substitute teachers, and by doubling up classes, over two hundred teachers were freed during each morning in the week. They met in six groups to discuss common problems of curriculum. These groups and some of the topics considered were

A. Arts in General Education Group

Are the arts good for all?

What should be the place of the arts in a functioning general-education program?

By what means can the arts come to function to the fullest extent in the general-education program of a school?

How can the arts teachers get together on their common problems in order to improve the total program of instruction?

B. Junior High School Core Planning Group

How can time be found for teacher-teacher planning?

Should we attempt an all-school or an experimental program?

In what ways can proper equipment and materials be provided?

Whose is the responsibility for intelligent coordination and how shall it be met?

In what ways can we discover the common concerns of pupils?

How may we best determine the proper scope of a semester's work?

C. Pupil-Teacher Planning Group

What are the possibilities of carrying on pupil-teacher planning in specialized courses such as mathematics?

Are there any differences in the method and extent of pupil-teacher planning in junior and senior high schools?

How can pupils share in the evaluation of class work when pupil-teacher planning is followed?

How can flexibility of program be provided which will allow a special-interest teacher to contribute to the development of a unit?

D. Scope and Sequence Group

What working, understandable definitions can be found for "general education," "scope," and "sequence"?

How can overlapping and duplication of materials be minimized?

Will fixed placement of materials conflict with a needs approach and pupil-teacher planning?

In what ways can the junior high school find out the background material provided by the elementary school?

E. Science in General Education Group

What is the proper relation of science materials to the core program?

How can science experiences reach a larger number of pupils?

How can science teachers contribute toward improvement of the total school program?

F. Social Studies in General Education Group

What are the criteria for the selection of content for social studies courses?

How can individualization of instruction be provided in each unit of work?

To what extent should the problems approach be used?

In what ways can community resources be used, and what problems will be encountered?

Out of these clinics (plus, of course, the influence of Workshops, the efforts of the Denver administrative staff, and other teacher cooperative efforts), have come more efficient plans for core courses, better understanding and improved machinery for guidance, an increased use of community resources, a broader place for the arts, and superior coordination of the junior high-schools' program and that of the senior high schools of Denver.

Each member of the Staff sought to visit each of the schools in the Study, spending one or two days in each one for purposes of mutual acquaintance. Thereafter, visits were made only as requested. The result of these visits has been that the schools may be classified in four groups in terms of their uses of the Staff. One group is made up of those schools in which very little curricular reconstruction has taken place since their entry into the Study. The second group consists of those schools which have been thoroughly alive to the possibilities presented to them by the Eight-Year Study, and have in many cases made great strides since 1933, but which felt competent to plan and effect those changes with little or no help from those outside their own faculties. Some of the most significant work in the Study is being done by this group. The third group includes those schools where no real attempt has been made to change fundamental plans, but in which there are individual teachers eager for advice and help from Curriculum Staff members. In the fourth and last group are those schools which have undertaken thorough-going reconstruction of their curricula, and have sought all the help they could get.

There would be little point in listing the schools under these headings, but it is interesting to note that the last group contains many of the public schools in the Study. Hence,

Staff members have found themselves visiting fewer schools each year but staying for longer periods at those visited. It is hard to say whether Staff members are more concerned with the problems and possibilities of the public schools than with those of the private institutions because they have been invited to spend more time in the public schools, or whether their services were sought by the public schools because Staff members had this interest. Regardless of which is the chicken and which the egg, this volume draws most of its illustrative material from public-school situations, the reasons being: greater familiarity and potentially greater applicability.

Certain problems have arisen in attempting to make the work of the Curriculum Staff more effective. One of these has been the proper planning for the visits of Staff members. Too frequently a member of the Staff would write to a school asking for the plans which had been made for the wise use of his time, only to be answered by a sentence, "You will be welcome on the days mentioned and every effort will be made to expedite your visit." The good-will was, of course, appreciated, but the Curriculum Consultant needed to know, in addition, the plans for the use of his time. After all, it is better to know the worst than merely to fear it. The following letter is quoted liberally because it illustrates wise planning and some of the range of curricular services:

We have given careful consideration to your letter asking for a statement of the services we should like to have from the Curriculum Associates during the coming year. We are more than anxious that we have as much opportunity to use these men as you can give us in fairness to the other schools which have claim on their services.

Thinking of the first semester only, we have the following periods at which time our schedule would permit effective use of the Curriculum Associates:

October	24 to	29
November	15 to	23
November	28 to Dec.	10
January	3 to	14

In our listing of services requested from different individuals, we are ready to adjust to their coming as far as possible within the above named periods. The schools other than Roosevelt, in Des Moines, are very anxious to share in the use of the Curriculum Associates in every way possible, in the length of time certain of the members can spend with us at a given period. We shall attempt to give the other schools a considerable opportunity to participate although we are very anxious to continue the development of certain courses and projects which have been undertaken at Roosevelt, and which can profit by intensive application of time in development and improvement.

Mr. Giles

We should like very much to have considerable time with Mr. Giles as early in the year as he can be sent to us in October, immediately after the Atlantic City conference, if that choice can be given us. We need him for a week at least, and would appreciate a day or two longer if he is available.

We have in mind his helpfulness in the following ways:

- to bring more arts experience into the general curriculum, especially in the twelfth grade;
- to help us show other teachers how they may participate in the experimental program;
- to stimulate the use of activities other than writing and speaking as media of learning;
- to aid in explaining and developing pupil-teacher planning techniques;
- to advise our junior-high teachers in the development of the program begun at Roosevelt;
- to visit teachers of other schools and encourage them to participate in the experimentation in Des Moines.

Mr. McCutchen

We should like to have Mr. McCutchen for at least a week, and have in mind his helpfulness in the following ways:

to continue his assistance in developing the Core Curriculum at Roosevelt;

to assist and advise with Miss Hammer at Woodrow Wilson Junior High School and with our teachers in Roosevelt Junior High School;

to continue his definite work with the twelfth grade Curriculum group at Roosevelt.

We can make use of his services at any one of the periods given, but prefer not to have him at the same time as Giles because they should need to work with many of the same teachers. We shall want a later visit of a few days in the spring. If we can have the choice, the dates between November 28 and December 10 are preferred.

Mr. Zechiel

We should like to have Mr. Zechiel to help us as follows:

to aid in continuing the development in biology and practical sciences in the senior high schools including Lincoln and East High;

to aid in continuing the development of junior high sciences;

to aid in building more science into the curriculum particularly in the Roosevelt Experimental groups.

Mr. Zechiel has laid the foundation in previous visits for a very valuable extension of science-curriculum development in the other schools of the city.

North High School in particular is anxious to get to work on their science and to have his help. We should like to have him for about two weeks, if possible, and could very profitably use the period between November 28 and December 10, although the October dates would be quite acceptable. We can readily use him at the same time Mr. McCutchen comes if it is convenient. We shall also want a second visit in the spring semester if it is possible to obtain it.

Mr. Kaulfers

We shall be glad to use Mr. Kaulfers at any time he is available with the exception of vacation periods and the State Teachers Association meeting November 3-5. We want to make his coming the occasion for a city-wide conference of foreign language

teachers in the effort to arrive at the most modern and useful program of languages we can develop. Because his time with the study is so limited, we shall not state a specific date, but shall try to use him when it fits into his travel schedule. We believe we shall be ready to use him quite intensively, and to release teachers from some of their classroom duties for the conferences.

Mr. Lester

We shall be glad to have Mr. Lester at any time he is available. He has had less contact with our people than the other Staff members and will probably want to spend most of his time among the eastern schools.

We are making these requests with the understanding that we must fit our program into the general plans for their use among a number of schools. We shall make whatever adjustment possible in our plans as to time.⁶

It has occasionally happened that Curriculum Associates have arrived at a school at a time agreed on with the administrator only to find that the teachers involved had not been informed of the visit, and were totally unprepared for it. Much better results have been obtained when the teachers who were concerned in the visit of a particular Staff member have participated in the planning and schedule-making. The following excerpt illustrates how such planning was best done:

We should like to have you submit to us the names of the members of your Staff who might be able to come to Denver this year, and approximately the amount of time that each of them might be with us; also, the type of service that each is prepared to render. We feel that their work in Denver should have to do with the following types of curriculum activity:

1. visits and conferences with teachers according to subject-matter groupings;
2. visits and conferences with teachers working on core courses;

⁶ From a letter from Principal Stonecipher representing the Des Moines Administrative Conference.

3. conferences with pupils;
4. conferences with the school Planning Committees;
5. conferences with the Central Committees;
6. discussions with school faculties.

On the basis of the replies that we receive from you, we shall call together a committee of teachers and principals, and prepare a detailed formal request for the services of your staffs, and then you will have something definite on which to formulate an answer.⁷

The sort of schedule that showed planning and maximum use of staff time is illustrated below:

Schedule for Curriculum Staff
October 31-November 4, 1938
Tulsa, Oklahoma

Monday, October 31

8:00-11:30 Conference Hours in Junior High Schools

Mr. Giles—Woodrow Wilson—(7th grade)

Mr. Zechiel—Daniel Webster—(9th grade)

Mr. McCutchen—Lowell Junior High School—(7th and 8th grades)

12:00- 1:00 Conference with Senior High School General Education Teachers and Department Directors

1:00- 3:00 Individual Conferences

3:45- 5:00 Department Meetings

Mr. Giles—Senior High School English Teachers—Room 208

Mr. McCutchen—10AB II History Teachers—Room 226 C.H.S.

Mr. Zechiel—All Secondary Science Teachers—Room 430 C.H.S.

Tuesday, November 1

8:00-11:30 Conference Hours in Junior High Schools

Mr. Giles—Horace Mann (7th grade)

Mr. McCutchen—Roosevelt (8th grade)

⁷ From a letter from Mr. Cushman, Curriculum Director of the Denver Schools.

Mr. Zechiel—Clinton Junior High (7th grade)

12:00- 2:00 Department Directors Luncheon

2:00- 4:00 Individual Conferences

4:00- 5:00 Mr. Giles—Art, Music, Industrial Art and Home Economics—Room 430 C.H.S.

7:30- 9:00 Mr. Giles, Mr. McCutchen, Mr. Zechiel—All Secondary Teachers—South Aud. C.H.S.

Wednesday, November 2

8:00-11:30 Conference Hours at Junior High Schools

Mr. Giles—Lowell Junior High School (7th and 8th grades)

Mr. McCutchen—Daniel Webster (9th grade)

Mr. Zechiel—Cleveland Junior High (7th grade)

12:00- 1:00 Conference with Senior High School Teachers in General Education and Department Directors

1:00- 4:00 Individual Conferences

4:00- 5:00 Departmental Meetings

Mr. Giles—Junior High School English Teachers—Room 208

Mr. McCutchen—10AB II History Teachers—Room 226

Mr. Zechiel—All Secondary Mathematics Teachers—Room 118

Thursday, November 3

8:00-11:30 Conference Hours at Junior High Schools

Mr. Giles—Roosevelt Junior High (8th grade)

Mr. McCutchen—Clinton Junior High (7th grade)

Mr. Zechiel—Woodrow Wilson (8th grade)

12:00- 2:00 Principals and Department Directors—Luncheon

2:00- 4:00 Individual Conferences

4:00- 5:00 Junior High School General Education Teachers—Room 430

Mr. Zechiel, Mr. Giles, Mr. McCutchen

6:30 Curriculum Council—Dinner Meeting

Friday, November 4

8:00-11:30 Conference Hours in Junior High School

Mr. Giles—Cleveland Junior High (7th grade)

Mr. McCutchen—Woodrow Wilson (7th or 8th grade)

Mr. Zechiel—Horace Mann Junior High (7th grade)

12:00- 1:00 Conferences with Senior High School General
Education Teachers and Department Direc-
tors

1:00- 2:00 Conference with Assistant Superintendent

2:50 Catch train out of town⁸

In the various conferences with teachers such as those referred to above, efforts were made to secure ahead of time the questions or topics for discussion of most interest to the teachers concerned. Sometimes the questions were handed to the staff member at the beginning of the conference; sometimes he received them a day in advance; and only too rarely they were mailed to him before his arrival. Some of the questions raised and topics suggested were:

How can teachers do any individual work with pupils in large classes?

How should subject-matter and its presentation differ in classes of varying ability?

What new techniques are there for analyzing propaganda?

Will you discuss for us some of the techniques for stimulating and directing meaningful class discussion?

Must hard tasks be assigned and required arbitrarily?

How would you provide for scope and sequence in grades one to twelve in order to avoid omitting important areas?

What is back of teacher-pupil planning?

What can we do in spite of large classes, five classes daily for each teacher, hour periods for each class?

How can we *begin*? What first steps can you suggest?

What should be left out of the curriculum to allow a core program?

How can one get suitable materials for non-textbook courses?

⁸ From a letter from Mr. Foster, Asst. Supt. of the Tulsa Schools.

Isn't there a danger of children becoming over-saturated with "problems of contemporary life," worthy home membership, etc.?

How much obligation should the science teacher accept for stimulating social sensitivity and keen interest in social problems?

How does formal English fit into a program of general education?

How should we handle the social studies contribution to our core program? Should there be required courses in social studies outside the core? What elective social studies should we offer?

Since this is a volume dealing with the curriculum, the work of that Staff has been described at considerable length. It must not be forgotten, however, that there were other special staffs, working at the same time. These are named and briefly described below. Their work is fully described in other volumes of this report.

Evaluation Staff

The Evaluation Staff has rendered two great services to every school and person working with it: first, to force clarification of values and purposes—to make teachers search their souls for the things that really matter and really are worth evaluating; second, to provide the first and the most inclusive battery of tests for getting at the "intangibles"—the things that matter but are hard to measure or record. In both cases, the major service has been through teaching school people how to think, and how to construct and interpret tests and records.

Records and Reports Committee

The Records and Reports Committee, by its development of record forms that give much space to the more funda-

mental developments in attitudes, appreciations, thinking ability, and skills, has encouraged teachers to observe and record the progress of pupils toward many outcomes in addition to subject-matter mastery.

College Follow-up Study

The College Follow-up Study, by its exhaustive analysis of paired groups, has done most, perhaps, to explode the myth that there is one sacred and relatively unchangeable pattern of preparing students for college. Teachers, as well as colleges, are only beginning to realize how much tradition-hallowed ground has been plowed up by the Follow-up Study and made fertile for new uses.

SUMMARY, CHAPTERS VII AND VIII

This chapter and the preceding one have dealt with ways or processes by which teacher growth may be encouraged and given form. Administrative arrangements, sources of learning, methods of action—all these are necessary, of course. But as stated earlier, almost everything will depend upon the inner feelings of teachers. It is from these feelings that action comes. It is with them that persons who would foster teacher growth must be concerned first of all.

A careful study of many individual teachers and of their school groups seems to reveal one outstanding factor present where growth takes place. It might be called a sense of the adventure of living—an inner excitement and joy at the discovery and use of one's whole being. This is the sort of thing the founding fathers had in mind when they sought to establish "the pursuit of happiness" and the ideal of equal opportunity for all.

It is a temptation to say, as Plato did, that the teacher, or any adult, takes the same pleasure in discovering and using the powers of the mind as the young human animal does in finding and using his physical abilities. Yet that, too, is in-

exact, for the child is constantly using his mind, and the teacher, his physical powers.

In the excitement of the intellectual, emotional, and physical adventure which we call human development or education, there seems to be a paradox: at one and the same time, growth is highly individual and highly social—it springs from within the person, yet it receives its most precious value from the sense of belonging to a social group. Yet the paradox may not be so difficult to understand after all, since it is this very sense of shared ideals or values which gives each human being the greatest feeling of inner and individual rightness and security. When this is lost, a person or even, as we see today, a nation of persons will take the most desperate measures to restore it.

It is a commonplace in education to interpret maladjusted, exhibitionist behavior on the part of children as coming from a desire to attract attention, from a warped attempt to find a place, recognition, and love. Should it not be recognized as an equally common fact that the school teacher—whose work is so complex, so subtle in its effects, so long in maturing that the results may never be seen clearly—needs both the stimulus and comfort that come from the sympathetic understanding and encouragement of his colleagues? Assuming that these basic needs are present in every human being, the teacher, as a professional worker, should be aided to find both personal growth and social recognition as his capacities are used to aid student growth.

A great desire to aid the growth of students is plainly related, in the cases studied, to a conscious or unconscious recognition of similarities between the learner and the teacher. To begin with, these may be limited to very specific kinds of likenesses—in one case a desire to create meaning in arts materials, in another the excitement of intellectual adventure through words, in another the rebellion against economic repression, in still another the passion for the an-

alytical certainties of science. But in all cases where teachers come close to a full realization of their powers and their task, this particular channeling of the growth impulse is soon seen to have a much broader meaning. It is realized that art, language, economics, science are only particular forms, materials, and techniques for applying human abilities, for releasing and disciplining them. Thus the true task is discovered to be the release of power by whatever and as many means as may be found valuable.

From the standpoint of the administrator, individual development and social recognition will be brought about by many arrangements wisely adjusted to the particular person, place, and time. The teacher will have a simultaneous awareness of these two needs, but first one, then the other will be dominant. The first, the individual desire, explains why any teacher worth his salt makes some development in any situation. His own constant curiosity regarding the nature of his work and its improvement—as a test of his own capacities—will lead him forward. At the same time, the second, the need for social validation of the self, explains the place of cooperative thinking and action, for by this means a sense of belonging is given clear outward form. In turn, a new release of individual power is effected by the community of ideas and action. In action it is soon evident that it is possible to do more for more people by united effort. The real leader, then, of an educational enterprise is one who reveals to those engaged in it, the ways by which they can combine their strengths and more completely realize the never ending joy of releasing their energy and ability to good effect. Such a one will not only develop himself or inspire development in others; he will help them to see ways of more effectively achieving their real and already deeply felt desires.

In this achievement, the clarification of purpose—the clarifying of faith and conviction regarding life values—is

basic. All the rest—the steps to put faith into practice, to think, to do; the materials, the forms of organization, the evaluation of progress—are the means of achieving the purposes that faith may engender. It is for the teacher, then, to live so that he may achieve, and help others to achieve, the fullest possible participation in man's unending, ever changing search for his place and meaning in a world of other men.

Chapter IX

IN CONCLUSION

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A survey of the work in the schools of the Eight-Year Study, such as has been attempted in this volume can, of course, be only partial in its nature. There is probably no way to convey by the printed page a sense of the living qualities which have made this project so challenging to all who have been associated with it. But since all the plans, all the execution of them, all the evaluation have been carried on by persons vitally alive, the work goes on—even though the formally constituted Study has come to a close. It may be of interest to the reader to have an informal summary of the high-points that stand out as the Curriculum Staff thinks back upon the whole experience and tries to envision the implications of what has been done.

In such retrospect, one impression stands out above all others: a conviction that there is no problem of organization, such as the making of a schedule or the conduct of a custodian, that does not have significance in the curriculum. For the curriculum is now seen as the total experience with which the school deals in educating young people. Conversely, there is no classroom activity or teacher behavior not closely related to problems that have been called “administrative.”

This is due, in part, to the fact that it is the total school experience which has most meaning to a child. It is also due to the fact that school staffs are discovering tremendous possibilities by means of cooperative work and by the creation of a united, meaningful, whole situation for themselves as well as for their pupils. It is fair to say, then, that most

of the problems that have perplexed and challenged the Thirty Schools have come from the complexity of the job. Real and thorough reorganization could not be entered into lightly, or completed in a hurry, for it involves the general life of the school as well as the work of the classroom.

All of which is by way of introduction to discussion of two large groups of problems that called for solution as the Thirty Schools began their task of reconstruction. The first group of problems includes the activities of the administrator, the plant, guidance, values and purposes, staff administration, whole-school activities, college relations, community relations, evaluation, records, and reports. The second involves organization of materials of instruction, methods of teaching, and ways of evaluating, recording, and reporting student progress.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE SCHOOL

The emphasis here is on the problems of change in administrative organization. The reader, however, should not lose sight of what has already been noted, namely, the inextricable relationship of administration to the work of teacher and class, which will be re-emphasized later.

Major Problems

At the beginning of the Eight-Year Study, it was a normal thing in many of the schools for the principal to make teaching assignments, arrange schedules, direct policy, and handle discipline with some advice from faculty members, especially from heads of departments. It is fair to say that, today, there is no principal in the participating schools who has not extended the concept of administration so that it includes still greater knowledge on his part of the daily work of the school, and much greater participation on the part of all concerned in both determining and carrying out policies. "All concerned" means that at the least entire faculties should

consider and formulate statements of the aims of the school. At first consideration it may not appear how revolutionary and difficult this development can be. Yet if one remembers that through most of the history of education, the directions that schools were to follow have been handed down by prominent persons, committees, or administrators themselves, this growing practice toward wide participation gains significance as a characteristically American one.

All of the schools have sought understanding of the democratic ideal. Steadily through the last four years of the Study, as the international situation grew increasingly grave, the schools became more and more conscious and articulate concerning the nature of the social ideals that mark this country from others. It is not to be overlooked, of course, that the depression and hostile critics of the expenditure of school funds had their influence on this development. It is also undeniable that in all conferences and in Workshops for teachers there has been a steadily growing emphasis on the need for a belief. Belief in the rights of all men to develop their abilities is comparable in strength to that which animated the founders of our nation.

It would not be accurate to say that administrators, teachers, students, and parents clearly agree on what the democratic ideal is. But the first great step is taken when a lively awareness of the need for an understanding of the democratic ideal becomes clear. This has meant that administrators, legally constituted "authorities," have had no easy row to hoe. They have wished to become democratic rather than autocratic leaders. Exactly what that means is still difficult to say.

Along with the increasing emphasis on the need to provide a clear-cut "democratic" form of administrative leadership, the increasing emphasis on individual differences and the revelations of the rapidly developing science of human psychology have brought another problem to the fore. This

problem is: to what extent shall the pupil be taught to adjust to the institution—the school, for example—and to what extent must the institution adjust to the pupil? What happens to grade levels and homogeneous groupings if the latest information on the variability of maturation among children of the same chronological age is recognized? Again, the resurgence of the classical ideal—education of the intellect through the reading of the hundred great books—has influenced schools. In contrast, the scientific evidence regarding social maturity and its importance in comparison to intellectual maturity has posed a nice problem to administrators, especially where half-yearly promotions and speed-up opportunities were being fostered by responsible educational bodies.

Not least among the problems pushing strongly for solution by administrative heads have been those of proper guidance of teachers and young people, so that by accurate diagnosis, the values of study and the mutual adjustment of program and individual students might proceed most intelligently. The past ten years have seen both the sharp rise and the sharp diminution of emphasis upon home-rooms. This two-way phenomenon has a decided relationship to the conscious need for closer guidance and counseling. On the other hand there is the growing conviction that the best understanding and results do not come from a perfunctory and rigid period of twenty minutes or so to be devoted to that job (often deteriorating into the reading of official notices and special assignments). Finally, the perennial questions of what general education is, who should have it, how long and in what way, have become more and more urgent as educators and laymen alike have scrutinized the functions and performance of schools in terms of results in after-school life.

Thus the enduring problems of education have played a large role in the development of the Eight-Year Study. It

can be shown, however, that these problems have been brought into sharper focus by the following elements in the nature of that Study and in its conduct:

- the autonomy of the schools, which forced each local institution to think in terms of its own local needs and resources;
- the fresh and vigorous energies of teachers set free by college agreement so that they were impelled to think about, and participate in, policy-making;
- the stimulus and help of specialized assistance in putting programs into more effective relationship with the purposes of the school;
- the opportunity afforded by Workshops for group thinking and the collection of materials of all kinds as resources in new teaching;
- the beginnings of relationships with the community as a whole—as a partner in policy-making and as a great reservoir of resources for learning.

From this brief presentation of facts it may be seen that administrative problems have been multiplied but also clarified in the Thirty Schools. The principal has been faced with the need for knowing many new things; above all, he has been faced with the task of discovering new ways to do things—from the administration of plant and time schedule, to the task of providing leadership in thinking. Not the least of his tasks has been that of acting as a buffer between experimental workers absorbed in their job, and a community of children and adults who demanded satisfactory answers to many questions regarding all this “newfangled” procedure. Many people, quite naturally, are inclined to question any departure designed to supplant the time-honored educational practices which they themselves have known and accepted as the proper functions of the school.

In spite of the weight cast upon the administrators, each

one is today conscious of all these problems and is making significant efforts to meet them. Whether this could have been said at the start of the Study is doubtful. Evidences on this point may be found in the documents produced by administrative groups at annual meetings of the Study, at Workshops, and in school reports.¹ Above all, the evidence will be found in the schools themselves.

Attempted Solutions

A quick resume will serve to remind the reader of the extent to which administration has become more democratic. In the school systems of Denver, Tulsa, Des Moines, and Shaker Heights, there are curriculum councils; in some of these cities the councils include an elected central body representing teachers and administrators from the whole city, as well as the individual school councils. All have for their general purpose the continuous study of problems; re-formulation of aims; and achievement of better organization and materials. Their very existence serves to remind every teacher in the system that he has the opportunity to make his voice heard in the consideration of these important matters. It is significant that these councils—and the grade- or special-purpose, faculty-planning groups to be found at Tower Hill School, Eagle Rock, Woodrow Wilson in Tulsa, George School, and others, along with their counseling systems—have a variety of forms and functions. The variety is not due to differences in central purpose, for all of these are steps toward the realization of more active participation by all concerned. It is due to the fact that here is a significant new development in education: experimental attempts to put guidance and administration in the hands of those who know the problems best. The administrator is a participant,

¹ See especially reports of Wilford Aikin's administrative groups at Denver, and those of T. H. Broad and group from Penn State College Summer Workshop.

often a leader in such groups, but he is *in* and *of* the group, rather than above it by virtue of his office.

Along with this greatly increased participation by teachers in school management has come increased interest among them in the general purposes of education. There is an increased attention, for example, to the fact that for all boys and girls, particularly for the five out of six who will receive no more formal education after they leave high school, there is need for a broad and useful general education. This fact, coupled with the meeting of minds from all grade levels and subject fields, has led to a breakdown of the old rigid departmentalization in many schools of the Study.

The sharp focus on the need for a good general education—a focus that has led every school in the Study to re-state its purposes and emphasize those concerned with attitudes, traits of social behavior, and problem solving²—has had the effect, as stated, of lessening the isolation of departments. This shows itself in the grade- (as opposed to the department) faculty-planning groups cited above; in the supplanting of department heads by group heads in Los Angeles; and in the sequence of areas of learning such as are given in Tulsa Junior High Schools, the George School, Bronxville, Ohio State University School, and all others where “core” studies occupy more than one period of the school day. Of course, accompanying this last-mentioned change in the students’ programming is the subject supervisor’s greatly increased responsibility for assistance to teachers on broad problems arising out of work on the job rather than out of a prepared syllabus from the office of the supervisor. This is nowhere better illustrated than in the work which Katherine Kinyon of Denver has been carrying on for years, and the more recent but equally effective work of B. L. Shepherd of Tulsa.

To meet the requirements of new thinking, and new and

² See the school reports, Vol. V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.

wider forms of educational activity, almost all of the schools of the Study have made significant changes in schedule. The chief comment about these changes is that schedules have become more flexible as to the use of space in and out of the school building, and with regard to the use of time. In large city schools where there are difficult problems of management in connection with passing to and from classes, and keeping track of the whereabouts of individual students, a highly important series of experiments has been carried on, all partaking of the nature of the "school within a school." By assigning a relatively small group of students (from 200 to 500) to a relatively small faculty group, and giving this group authority over the administration of time and space, much progress has been made toward solving the problems of administrative flexibility.

There is a general tendency throughout the Study for a similar de-centralization of authority, or rather a democratic spread of it, so far as whole-school projects, student government, and clubs are concerned. With regard to the last named, two points of view are increasingly held in all the schools. One of these is the view that there is no good reason for separating the real interests of children—such as expressed in a photography or travel club—from the work of the classroom. If such interests are real and educative, they deserve more than a grudging assignment of one period a week, unrelated to other school work. Photography can play an important role in the making of educational motion pictures as has been demonstrated in the English-social studies class of Marguerite Smith in the Will Rogers School in Tulsa; in presenting sociological data as in the classes of Willis and Van Til at Ohio State University School; and in the science and art classes as at New Trier. Furthermore, there has come to be an increasing realization that over-organizing club activities, so that every student is required to belong to one club or another, can take the joy

out of the activity and thus decrease materially the creative eagerness with which it might otherwise be carried on. For the admittedly good purpose of giving group interests full play while avoiding cliquishness, the classroom committees which are formed on the basis of interest, and which change as problems change, have been found fully adequate in an overwhelming majority of the schools.

Replacing the "club," and to some extent challenging the emphasis on athletics as the most exciting form of whole-school activity, are such projects as the trips to important centers of national life made by the Lincoln School, the Dalton School, and others. There is a growing connection between social service and school life. This is well illustrated by the Francis Parker Christmas toy shop, and the amazing and successful transformation of a farm home by students of the Cherokee School in Tulsa.

In regard to student government, there has been a considerable increase of inquiry into the real function of student control, especially of its primary purpose—whether this purpose is to provide for efficient policing and for social occasions, or for wide participation in the experience of political democracy. As has been indicated in earlier chapters, the trend in some of the schools, still a minority, is toward the latter function, with faculty and students, even parents, co-operating more closely in dealing with problems of school life, which are handled by student officials.

In considering the social organization of the Thirty Schools, one must recognize, as have the schools themselves, that nowhere is the job of administration more crucial than in relation to the larger community, both social and academic. Hence the relations of the schools to colleges, and to parents, very properly assume a commanding place in the attention of administrators. When this Study was begun, it was a common assumption that the pattern of college-entrance requirements furnished, on the whole, a

reliable clue to the proper education of all young Americans; in the case of the one out of six who actually went on to college these requirements were an inescapable mandate. Today, the Eight-Year Study, with its painstaking follow-up of students in college, has shown that there is no sacred pattern—that success in college does not depend upon a particular quantity of experience in a predetermined sequence of studies.

In fairness to the colleges, it must be recalled that more than three hundred of them were willing to put the hypothesis of their requirements to this test. It must also be admitted that even the schools in the Study were not quick to break through the old pattern, and that in many of them, the preparation of teachers, parents, and students for a change in procedure has occupied most of the years of the experiment. Because that is true, it is of special interest to note two points: (1) impatient pioneers and critics of educational radicalism will both be compelled to revise their notions regarding the speed with which real and substantially thought-out change in education can take place; (2) the Study's experience in this respect throws into bold relief the need for greater understanding between community and school, and between secondary and "higher" institutions of learning.

Attempts to achieve this increase in understanding have moved fumblingly. But enough of them have been successful to hold out a bright promise for the future. One type, that of direct conference, is especially new and especially promising. This type is exemplified in the parent meetings at John Burroughs; in the parent institutes and study groups at Ohio State University School; in the forum meetings and mimeographed reports of Radnor; in the radio panels in Des Moines, Denver, and Tulsa; in the photographs, movies, and bulletins issued in Des Moines, Tulsa, and Los Angeles; in the home visitations at New Trier, and Manual Training

High and Baker Junior High in Denver; and in the great increase in individual parent conferences now found in fully half the schools as standard procedure, and in others where individual teachers rely on it extensively. This increase in personalized understanding has come about as classes and classwork have centered more and more on problems real to students, and as teachers have been given longer periods of association with the same group of pupils. With a decrease of faith in "mind-training" and an increase of attention to the real problems of human beings in the whole context of their living, this new emphasis on personal contact between home and school is probably inevitable.

As communities have grown more and more complex in their structure, with the increased specialization attendant on growth of a technological society, not only the problems and aims of education within the school, but the possibilities of close identification of adolescents with learning through some form of community participation has become more and more difficult. To repeat, community participation by young people is a large social, as well as an educational, problem. The complexity of modern community life has caused changes in the nature of family living from the day when every member participated in daily chores, hopes, and plans; and it accounts for a steady shift of schools and their purpose away from too great reliance on book-learning. Now it is being recognized by every school in this Study that there is need to make a place for the adolescent as a responsible participating citizen who must establish first-hand contact with the affairs of community life in order to make his intellectual understanding of them mean something more than words in books. From this need have resulted the efforts of school administrators in keeping track of vocational opportunities, as done by Principal Wood of the Garfield School in Los Angeles; in teaching both children and parents in the home economics classes in the Lowell school in Tulsa; in

alternating work and school at Radnor; and in surveying community agencies and determining their relevance to the education of adolescents, as conducted by a large group of teachers in Des Moines. These and similar efforts represent the re-orientation of the schools in this Study to the idea of education through community living. As students observe and even participate in community activities, as parents and other citizens are called upon for aid in trips of exploration and for expert knowledge, there results increased understanding between them and the school which is moving in new directions. None of the Thirty Schools has yet carried this identification with the whole of daily living to the point reached by some of the schools in the Southern Study,³ but there is no school which has not taken some steps in this direction.

The school's relations with homes and colleges can be increasingly satisfactory if significant and meaningful reports of student progress are exchanged. Nowhere in the Eight-Year Study has there been a more highly organized and effective development than in this area. The nature of this change can be studied in the volumes devoted to it,⁴ but it can be briefly summarized here for the purpose of this report.

First, evaluation has been scrutinized with the greatest care to see whether the measuring devices in use measured the actual purposes of the school, in all its functions. This would seem to be an obvious step, yet the experience of this Study, as of others, has proven that there has been a definite lag in the changes of measurement. Testing has not changed in a fashion corresponding to the increase in attention to new purposes. This is well illustrated by the many tests and measurements employed in those participating

³ The Study of the Southern Association of Schools and Colleges.

⁴ Vol. III, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*; Vol. IV, *Did They Succeed in College?*

schools which put their primary emphasis on information and content objectives, even though the primary purposes of the teachers were almost universally stated in terms of the development of powers and attitudes rather than the mastery of specific subject matter. These purposes were based on a realization that what the student could do with his knowledge—his powers of applying what he learned—was fundamentally important. Along with that realization, the Thirty Schools have come increasingly, and may now be said to be committed almost completely, to the concept of evaluation as most valid when it is based upon observation of behavior

Next, evaluation is conceived to be part of a process. To the extent that schools take these stands, they are asserting that what the student does is the best evidence of what he is and where he is in his development; also, that evaluation is not to be conceived as a final judgment of a static interval in growth, but as a tentative indication—a thermometer-reading which discloses a statement of condition and tendency. In turn, this leads to a fourth concept of the meaning and use of evaluation—a concept so important in some cases as to cause deep-seated changes in the attitudes of teachers and pupils. This is the idea that evaluation is for the purpose of guiding both pupil and teacher toward desired goals. It is the cause of change in attitudes in that it makes evaluation a means to an end—growth. This is in marked contrast to what some reports—especially in the form of marks, both high and low—have done in the past: namely, denoting to teachers, students, and parents the end of a process, a final judgment.

As evaluation has taken on the functions of a part of the developmental process, as it has become a means to the improvement of instruction, it has become more tentative, more sensitive, and more useful to school, college, and home. In such a scheme of things, the old forms of record-

ing and reporting have given way to new ones. A number or letter grade is no longer considered sufficient, in the schools of the Study as a whole, to inform students, parents, and colleges of individual abilities and their spread and quality, nor of the aptitudes, interests, special achievements, special deficiencies, and profitable future course of the student. Thus records of behavior—records of daily activity, problems, social attitudes, intellectual curiosity, special interests, creativeness, responsible carrying out of plans, and the development of self-criticism and initiative—have become essential. In fully half the schools of the Study records of these characteristics of behavior have supplanted, or supplemented, the old methods of grading and reporting, and in all of the schools there is a constantly increasing study of tests, records, and reports in relation to the over-all guidance responsibilities of administration. The fact that in several of the schools parents have become eager to have a written statement rather than a number grade shows that progress reports in terms of specific instances and indices are more functional and more appreciated than a system of report based on an outworn belief in faculty-psychology.

THE TEACHER

Turning from the social structure of the school as a whole to the heart of that structure—the teacher—one finds a striking series of developments which have taken place with accelerated speed during the last years of the Study. Over and over in educational literature there appears the conclusion that no school is better than the teachers it employs. But this Study has made it plain that the teacher, like the pupil, is capable of continuous development. This fact is in harmony, of course, with the democratic ideal and its expression in the purposes of the schools. It is, indeed, the chief guarantee of the practical realization of those high purposes. But before discussing teaching personnel, it is important to

recognize another fact: teachers and teaching are not good, bad, or indifferent in isolation. Good teaching, it is evident from this experience of the Thirty Schools, is not a star act in a vaudeville. It is a product of team work, as well as of hard or brilliant individual work.

Thus the effort to achieve a more realistic and scientific understanding of factors in the educational process, along with the effort to make democratic ideals clear and to implement them in school organization, have revealed unsuspected powers of individuals and unsuspected sources of strength that are to be achieved through cooperative work. As stated, this may sound self-evident. It was not so evident to schools in which teachers were not asked to think about broad purposes, were shut up within subject-matter boundaries, and were judged by their ability to prepare students for college entrance examinations.

Because of the great professional, personal, and social development of teachers which has taken place in this Study it is probably fair to say that the greatest development of teachers comes from a challenge to reorganize the job, with an eye to continual and far-reaching improvement. When teachers conceive of teaching as a creative art, based upon scientific method and knowledge, they are transformed from routine workers to creative adventurers. This concept of teaching is thrilling in its possibilities. It deals a body blow to the old industrial, factory pattern of school organization.

The perception of the possibilities of in-service growth did not dawn suddenly or mysteriously. It is interesting to note that in the beginning, the single greatest obstacle to curriculum reorganization encountered by any faculty was the attitude toward change on the part of teachers. Under such circumstances, it was tempting to say, as many have done, that it is not opportunity but courage which teachers lack, the courage to overcome the pleasant inertia of long tradition and habit. But while that inertia was and is present

in the teaching bodies of these schools, it is itself the product of circumstances. What, then, brought about the striking changes in attitude of hundreds of teachers in this Study? It was the discovery of the possibilities of personal growth through teaching; the discovery of a new faith in the democratic ideal and the place of education in achieving it, and the assurance of a modicum of freedom and security (varying from school to school as administrators and communities varied). It was the result of a challenge to think and act, coupled with the authority to do so. If listed chronologically, the steps in this discovery would include the following:

1. release of college restrictions and challenge to put new thinking into effect;
2. cooperative formulation of broad purposes;
3. provision of time and occasion for constant conference, planning, and accumulation of new materials;
4. application of scientific methods to the problem of evaluation;
5. stimulus of visiting consultants and news of the progress of the project as a whole.

Teachers were strengthened and stimulated as evidence accrued that the new programs were more meaningful to students and were creating a new atmosphere in classroom and daily living outside the school. And perhaps the greatest stimulus of all was the sense of belonging to an adventurous company which placed a premium upon the contributions of each of its individual members. This sense was created when an entire staff participated in the process of defining goals, when parent groups met to hear reports of new developments, when the teachers shared in Workshop discussions, and when there appeared an increasing number of published articles describing progress. Reinforcing all this was the relativistic concept of growth adopted in many classrooms and applied, in turn, to the teacher's own judgment of himself and others.

Group planning and exchange of information about work in progress, by means of periods devoted to staff meetings and by summer Workshops, resulted also in seeing objectives, subject matter, methods, and evaluation as aspects of one process—the development of human beings. As purposes became broader and more vital, there came about a necessity for more scientific methods of analyzing them and reducing them to immediate teaching objectives and instrumentalities. Thus such statements as the *Criteria for Content*, developed in Des Moines, played their role in making the program function along new lines; they also played their role in giving teachers a conviction of powers which had hitherto been latent, so long as such thinking was done for them.

It is a fair question to ask whether this encouraging picture is true of all the schools. It can be unhesitatingly answered that it is true of all the schools, although in greatly varying degrees. Speaking very broadly, about one-third of the schools went the whole way. And these were the schools whose graduates showed up best on the College Follow-up. Another third of the schools involved a significant number of teachers in the work of reconstruction. A final third could show only individual cases and segregated opportunities of the kind that have been described. Recent evidence at the meetings of the schools with representatives of the colleges, however, shows that in the schools which moved most timidly through eight years of the Study, there is at this writing an emphatic determination to carry on and to increase the amount of cooperative and fundamental curriculum reorganization.

ORGANIZATION OF CLASSROOM MATERIALS AND PROCEDURES

Tradition, inertia, community criticism, and insecurity of tenure—these were fully operative upon the actual process of curriculum reorganization. Despite these forces of reaction, certain clear results have been achieved.

First, subject fields have been reorganized so that within such subjects as history and mathematics, and especially in foreign language and mathematics where there has been less tendency to amalgamate than in the other fields, the problem approach has been attempted. As a result, the subject matter is now more closely and more obviously connected with the daily living of students and with their specialized vocational plans. It is possible to assert that there is not one of the participating schools in which this change has not occurred as a result of the Study. In many cases, it has been a preliminary step by means of which teachers and departments have slowly moved toward a more functional program—one in which the values of other subjects of study are gradually being included.

A second tentative step, somewhat more in vogue and encouraged by a similar development at the college level, has been the development of broad-fields courses. An example of a broad field is a social-studies course which replaces the study of history by periods. In such a case the social-studies course might include sociology, economics, and even anthropology, with a strong emphasis on the problems approach. Broad-fields courses have the distinguishing characteristic of being broadly inclusive within a general field. In this classification are the survey and orientation courses now in vogue for high-school freshmen who are being initiated into the possibilities of various studies, and for juniors and seniors who are being prepared for college or vocational choices. Again, it can be said that there is not one school in the Eight-Year Study which has not developed this type of program. In all cases the broad-fields type of program is leading to a greater emphasis on the problems approach, on extensive reading, and on the use of a variety of instructional materials in addition to books—such as trips, interviews, and field work. It is also encouraging more cooperative consultation and planning among teachers of several fields.

A third major development in curriculum building is found in many of the schools, and is particularly wide-spread at the junior high-school level. It is the core program, or unified-studies approach. This represents, in most cases, the most experimental of all the types of curriculum reorganization. Because of the autonomy of the schools and the particular limitations and creative qualifications of each local group, the core has taken a number of distinctive forms. As shown in the portions of this report which deal with it, the core often grows from an attempt to correlate two subjects, notably English and social studies. However important this attempt may be as a first step in the education of the teachers concerned, it is never finally satisfactory so far as the experience reviewed in this book has shown. This is because it not only begins with an emphasis on subject matter, but with two kinds of subject matter and two processes of development under two or more teachers in different class periods. It would not be true to say that such an effort cannot have any good results. In the hands of highly skillful and compatible teachers such as Henry Fenn and Benjamin Stolper at the Lincoln School, the unified-studies approach has proved stimulating to all participants. But the method that makes it stimulating depends upon highly sensitive adjustments. Indeed, the alternation of leadership produces at the best a series of units under one or the other of the teachers rather than the smooth-running combination of forces which is ideally sought.

Therefore, the core may be said to be characterized not by the fact that it combines subject matter, although it does use material from many fields, but rather by the fact that it is a cooperative venture in locating, planning, and solving problems. The fact that in some cases one teacher takes full charge while in others a group of six or even more are involved in daily planning and work, does not invalidate the unique characteristic claimed. For in every core group,

there is much cooperative planning between teacher and students. In some few cases, parents share in determining and carrying out the program. In addition to the fact that it is a cooperative attack on cooperatively chosen problems of vital concern to the students as a group, the core in almost all cases is also characterized by the fact that it occupies from two to all the periods of the school day, thus giving students and teacher an opportunity for consecutive relationships that aid greatly in satisfactory work of a research type. In many cases, of course, the continuity of contact has been found so valuable that the same teacher leadership of the same group of pupils has been continued for two or more years, always with benefits greatly outweighing the disadvantages.

In some ways, the core is a natural outgrowth of the experimentation in the elementary school which, during the past twenty years, has shown value in a long-time program, extending in some cases from the first through the twelfth year of schooling.⁵ In such a program, the question has been: How can each successive year's experience be articulated with preceding ones? In answer to this question, there has been a steadily growing trend toward using, as means of articulation, "areas of living," fundamental activities of human life which cut across subject fields and which extend throughout the period of schooling, as of life. Mention has already been made of the use of such areas, or similar broad-organizing principles, in the Bronxville and Eagle Rock high schools.

In addition to the types of curriculum development just given, other notable changes in scope and method are to be seen in the reports of all who have worked in the Thirty Schools. In deciding upon scope of studies, requirements, electives, and the like, all the schools have developed an

⁵ See the Virginia Course of Study.

increased awareness of the part to be played by an analysis of the needs of society and the needs of adolescents. In general, throughout the schools of the Study a change in point of view has occurred. This change now makes the problem of scope depend upon function—upon usefulness to the student in his present as well as in his future living—rather than upon a logically bounded sequence that will “cover” a subject. Sometimes the coverage is so complete that its significance is never disclosed to the student.

An important two-fold development found generally in the curricula of these schools is an increased stress on providing a rich variety of learning opportunities, especially in the arts, and an emphasis on student thinking to determine purposes and to choose appropriate material. This is in contrast to the faculty-psychology-autocratic methods that place the emphasis on a predetermined course of study, with dictated assignments, and with indiscriminate drill—for those who do not need it as well as for those who do. Sources thoughtfully chosen for their usefulness replace required materials handed to the student with the assignments. It must be admitted that the provision of a rich stock of learning materials is not yet adequately arranged in many schools. More time and more money are needed for this purpose. In meeting this problem, however, the Workshops have offered major help, and there is a marked increase in the amount of materials suitable for reference work provided in the past three or four years by publishing houses. Much more is promised. But it must be reiterated, that as yet municipalities are starving schools of pressing necessities. The blame cannot be placed wholly on the taxpayers. It is also heavily laid upon the schools themselves for making too little effort to inform and instruct the public of their needs. This subject cannot be left without a final word gleaned from the experience of all who have visited and worked closely with the schools of the Study. As a choice between adequate resources

and creative-minded teachers free to apply themselves whole-heartedly to the constant improvement of instruction, there is no question that the latter will insure, by some means or other, a real improvement in the vitality and efficiency of education. But obviously, there should be no necessity for choosing one or the other. Both are needed, and both are available at an infinitesimal cost to the public compared with the actual savings of human resources.

Finally, through the application of the research method—problem-solving—and through the notable increase in democratic practices such as cooperative planning among teachers, students, and parents, the schools of the Eight-Year Study have made a series of verifiable proofs of the great promise for the future. This promise is that the experiment in universal free education, started some 80 years ago by the United States (first of all the nations of the world to do so), is at the threshold of what can be its greatest advance. That experiment was predicated on the necessity, in a political democracy, for an informed citizenry. The experiment is now entering the period in which our society is gradually, somewhat confusedly, realizing that the democratic way of life calls for the use of intelligence and the release of the creative powers of each person, whatever his capacity may be, in all the affairs of each day.

Appendix

TYPICAL POINTS OF FOCUS OF CONCERNS OF ADOLESCENTS¹



ESTABLISHING PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

With Own Sex

Bases of friendship—content of experience

Understanding of homosexual phase

With Other Sex

Making transition to heterosexual interest

Techniques of approach to other sex—desire for charm

Concerns About Fundamental or Superficial Mores

Good taste in manners appropriate to the group

Money to spend on dates—how much—by girls

How late to stay out

Chaperonage—whether to break up party by leaving at parent's request

Inviting others to house

Smoking

Riding in cars

Petting

Sex discussions

} Girls—Boys

Feeling of possessiveness after few dates

Amount of initiative girls should take

Standards set by movie going

Yearning for Understanding Friendships

Longing for more friends of own age

Longing for popularity—techniques to use to attain

Wish for friends acceptable to the crowd

Surprise over disagreements or failure of friend to sustain ideal

¹ This summary of adolescent concerns was prepared by the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association, Alice V. Keliher, chairman. Printed by permission of the Commission.

Wish for friendship with an adult; companionable, not dominating but secure

Confusions Arising from Different Standards in Society

Home—relations of parents often disillusioning

School—inconsistencies of teachers and mates

Church—deferred values

Street

Gang—allegiance to gang despite personal distastes

Movies—standards of personal relations set

Interference of Process of Weaning from Family in Establishing New Personal Relationships

Concern Over Change of Self in Different Personal Situations

Self picture as part of establishing relationships

Problems in Achieving Successful Marriage

Attracting mate

Length of time one should know proposed mate

Health problems involved in marriage

Religion as important factor

Bases for selecting mate

Age for marriage—minimum—discrepancies

Income necessary for marriage—girl working

Relation of past sex experiences to success in marriage

Responsibilities of married life

Sex life in marriage

ESTABLISHING INDEPENDENCE

Father or Mother Domination—"Authority"

Normal

Excessive

Neglect

Inconsistencies on part of parents

Desire to Work

Achieve independent income

Allowed independence in use of money

Set up independent living quarters

Compulsory Work to Support Others

Desire to use own money for self

Desire to leave family impeded by dependence

Desire to Leave Home

To use own earnings

To start own home

To seek adventure—boredom

Emotional Break with Dependence on Family

Concern and guilt over forced break

Difficulty of establishing emotional independence

Ties to parent substitutes or emotional identification

Acceptance on Adult Level

Parents' inability to admit to adulthood

Reaction against "babying" or emotional condescension

Desire for adult companionship, giving freedom with security

Freedom of Choice in Vital Decisions

Reaction against excessive guidance—parent transference

Need for understanding, "man-to-man" guidance in:

Choice of vocation

Choice of school or college or

Choice between work and college or high school

Tendency to "go the limit" in experiencing

Setting Up Beliefs About "Creed" as Authority

Urge to create own creed in revolt against authoritarianism in religion

Establishing Allegiance as Part of Independence

Allegiance to peers supplanting family allegiance

Need for loyalties—emergence of new loyalties

UNDERSTANDING HUMAN BEHAVIOR**Concern Over Ways People Dominate and Hurt Each Other**

Parent over parent

Parent over youth

Youth over parent

Youth over youth—child

Typical mechanisms used—reasons

Bullying

Domineering

Dependence

Infantilism

318 ADVENTURE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Hysterical illness

"Blackmail" through knowledge

Group over group—nationalism—war

Concern Over Frailties of Justice—Miscarriages—Bias

Man's Inhumanity to Man

War—physical harm—torture

Mental cruelty—cruel teasing

General Discord Between People

Divorce of parents—divided allegiance

Pain of seeing discord between one's loved or admired

Surprise at pettiness of discord

ESTABLISHING SELF IN SOCIETY

Desire for Acceptance as Socially and Morally Responsible Person

(Boys) essential differences in their problems

(Girls) importance of self picture

By parents

By other family members

By community in which he travels

Desire for Acceptance of Opinions as Important by Adults and Others

Desire to Feel Important to Society or Group

Affiliation with great causes

Youth movements

Affiliation with gangs, mobs, etc.

Desire for martyrdom—attention

Desire to achieve distinction in group

Readiness for Assumption of Job with No Opportunity

Economic structure—"authority" of circumstances

Prolonged feelings of childishness through dependence

Longing to pursue vocation of person admired

Readiness for Assumption of Home and Family Responsibilities

Concern over proper sex behavior in face of delayed marriage

Concern Over Acceptance of Family Status by Social Group

Shame over lowly origins

Fears about living up to family traditions

Desire to Excel in Some Skill

Concern Over Status of Race or Minority Group

Differences in mores within same community

Italian girls—Negroes—Orientals—Mexicans

Rural group and feeling of inferiority

Efforts to Resolve Conflicts Arising from Differences in Mores in Groups within Society**Education**

Desire for more education—culture

Desire to change type of education being pursued

Desire to quit school to work

Desire to quit school because pals are not in school

NORMALITY**Physical Growth**

Origins—birth process

Developmental sequences

Puberty—special manifestations

Maturing sex organs—secondary sex characteristics

Maturing sex functions—hygiene

Weight

Height

Strength

Complexion

Gland functions

Spurts of energy and endurance

Mental Ability

Way mind works—shortages in memory, etc.

Mental achievements—living up to ideals

Set by self

Set by family

Set by groups

Native intelligence—concern over heredity

Capacity for study

Capacity for success in further education

Fluctuating ability to sustain

Emotions

Irrepressible feelings of hate, envy, love, etc.

Concern and guilt over jealousy, etc.—subtle cruelty

Surprise over power and sudden shifts of own emotions
Worry over lack of emotions

UNDERSTANDING THE UNIVERSE

Sensitivity

Marked increased personal sensitivity to beauty
Longing to contact nature—hike—sleep in woods, etc.
Feeling of ideals and currents outside experience

Concern over "Authorities" Outside Experience

Interest in natural laws
Science as it touches the mysterious

Urge to Create as Effort to Comprehend and Express

Writing—art—science—nature study, etc.

Feeling of importance of own creativity

Effort to Establish Security in World and Universe Not Understood

Turning to or away from religion
Turning to social causes or anti-social gang
Turning to science
Suicide thoughts

Thoughts of death as great mystery

Effort to Establish Philosophy of Life

Wish to discuss privately with peer or chosen adult
Role of ideals and marked efforts to sustain ideals

THE CORE PROGRAM AT EAST HIGH SCHOOL, DENVER²

SCOPE OF THE PROGRAM

The scope of the program is determined by the selection of general areas of living within which the units that make up the activities of the class are selected. East High School has chosen the following four areas:³

1. Personal living
2. Immediate personal-social relationships
3. Social-civic relationships
4. Economic relationships

² Reproduced from "The Report of the Denver Schools to the Commission on the Relation of School and College," Appendix. Mimeographed.

³ Suggested in *Science in General Education*, Chapter II.

In selecting activities for the program, reference has been made to these areas of living to be sure that all four are represented and that a balance among them is maintained.

SEQUENCE OF UNITS IN THE PROGRAM

The sequence of units suggested in this report has been made upon the basis of several years' experience of working with pupils at East High School in the planning of units and in their allocation. Ideally, units should not be allocated at successive grade levels but should be carefully planned with each class of pupils involved, in terms of their previous experience. Consequently, the sequence indicated below is only tentative and should be so recognized by every teacher and class in the program.

THREADS OF CONTINUITY

Running through the three years of the program and characterizing every activity in general education are certain threads of continuity which are important in the development of a significant education for young people. Some threads will be emphasized more effectively in one unit than another. It is inevitable that some threads will be subordinated from time to time, but it is the responsibility of teachers and pupils to build them into the experiences provided in general education.

1. Functional English

Clarity of ideas and expression are fostered in every unit in both oral and written form. Gathering of information through books, radio, lectures, interviews, and field trips demands constantly increasing powers in reading, listening, observing, taking notes, and in searching out materials. Presenting information requires powers of organization, and increasing skill in the use of language.

Each counseling teacher helps his pupils to become increasingly sensitive to ways of building vocabulary and to ways of increasing the accuracy and power of their written and oral expression.

2. A Wide Reading Program

Closely associated with each unit are reading experiences

which are made a vivid and important part of the program. Such experiences can be found by:

- a. Selecting fiction, drama, poetry, and biography which relate to the problems of study
- b. Encouraging pupils to read literature in order to:
 - (1) Understand people
 - (2) Understand different times and places
 - (3) Appreciate the artistic and emotional expression of phases of a problem

Of equal significance to young people is the encouragement of a broad reading program as part of general education. This may be accomplished in several ways:

- (1) By allowing pupils to help in the selection of a class library
- (2) By stimulating their interest in contemporary literature
- (3) By helping them to build increasing powers of discrimination in the selection of books for a "free" reading program

3. Critical Thinking

The ability to set up an hypothesis, to gather data, to test the hypothesis by the facts, and to come to conclusions in the light of the whole experience is a power with which the general education program is especially concerned. The distinguishing of facts from assumptions, the application of principles, the interpretation of data are activities to which every unit may contribute.

4. Applied Mathematics

Closely associated with the above is the ability to read graphs, to interpret statistics, to make simple computations in arithmetic, and the like. Whenever such understandings and skills are needed in a unit they are dealt with carefully so that pupils are increasingly able to use the tools of critical thinking.

5. Vocational Awareness

Although few pupils in the tenth grade are aware of their vocational interests and capacities, the attack upon the pro-

gram of vocations is continuous. It may well be the integrating center of the three years.

6. Mental and Physical Health

The teacher and his pupils must never lose sight of the importance of health as one of the conditions under which life may be lived with zest and purpose. Individual counseling may be the wisest method in helping young people to maintain the balances so essential to normal development, but wherever in the units of the program the principles of health emerge, they are carefully stressed.

7. Contribution of the Arts

In our enthusiasm for verbal powers, we have often neglected this important area of expression and communication. Direct contact with colors, textures, sounds, forms, and lines has a stimulation and meaning which words fail to engender. In every unit are opportunities for creative experiences both in enjoying the work of others and in productive activities of one's own, such as simple crafts, painting, drawing, making maps and charts, modeling figurines, arranging bulletin boards, and singing. Teachers and pupils are becoming more aware of the emotional balance, unity, and design for living which the aesthetic experience provides.

8. Applied Science

Everyday science plays a part in many of the units of the program. In the study of community living, the problems of sanitation, water supply, milk supply, quarantine, and food preservation demand an understanding of basic scientific principles. The same is true of units that deal with living in the home, consumer economics, and the effect of scientific invention on modern living. The scientific method is clarified through a study of how public opinion is formed.

9. Adequate Work Habits and Study Skills

This has long been regarded as one of the main functions of the school and still remains one of the unique responsibilities of the program in both general and special education. Direct attack upon these problems is begun in the first semester and continued throughout the three years.

10. Broadened and Deepened Interests

Pupils and teachers are sensitive to the outcomes of the program in terms of interests. Provision is made for exploration in many fields so that individual differences may be taken care of. Experience in any one interest area should be sufficient to give the pupil some powers of self-direction so that he can learn to build interests without the constant stimulation of formal education.

11. Safety

The problems of safety are considered in every unit where they are significant. For instance, provision for safety is important in community living, in the home, in industrial life, in the school, and in transportation.

12. Current Affairs

Although specific units may be built around current affairs, a constant effort to relate the experiences of each unit to the present world is vital to the success of the program.

13. Personality Development

Becoming a person who is socially adequate and effective is one of the prime needs of a high school pupil. Through individual and group counseling, teachers help pupils to be concerned for appearance, grooming, and social manners, and to discover ways of making adjustments to social living without losing their quality as individuals.

14. Democratic Living

In every relationship that is developed in the school and more specifically in the general education program, teachers and pupils live democratically together and seek to gain clearer understandings of what democratic living means. Democracy as a "way of life" implies human association which is characterized by:

- a. Respect for the individual and concern for his optimum development
- b. Faith in the free play of intelligence
- c. Participation of all in the solution of common problems, according to the capacity of each.⁴

⁴ The three characteristics of democratic living have been adapted from *Science in General Education*, Chapter II.

15. Evaluation and Keeping Records

This includes a testing program in terms of which planning for the three years goes forward and outcomes are measured, and cooperative and cumulative records are kept.

SUGGESTED UNITS TO BE INCLUDED IN THE PROGRAM

The list of suggested units to be included in the three years of general education at East High School which follows indicates those activities which have been found to be most successful in a program where pupils and teachers plan together for the experiences of the class. The general nature of the unit is described but no attempt has been made to give detailed procedures, which are left to the ingenuity of teachers and pupils. An asterisk indicates those units which are considered to be the most significant. No attempt has been made to show the sequence of units within each half grade level. Allocation within grade levels has been made with the understanding that such allocation is only suggestive and not final.

10 B Units

- *1. Orientation to the school including:
 - a. Sharing in the government and life of the school.
 - b. Planning for school life through considering ways of budgeting time, conserving energy, developing study habits, library skills, and the like.
- *2. Understanding oneself through a testing program in skills, expression of all kinds, general knowledge, and the like, and building a tentative three-year program including elective courses for three years.
- *3. Exploration of special interest fields such as music, reading, radio, sports, dramatics, gardening, movies, crafts, drawing, painting, and home and industrial arts.
- *4. Becoming aware of the current scene including:
 - a. Building some background for the understanding of world problems, that is, selection of a problem from current affairs and building a background for it, emphasizing study habits and skills.
 - b. Encouraging listening to the radio, reading newspapers and magazines, attending movies, going on field trips,

using visual material of all kinds to gather information and points of view.

c. Emphasizing world citizenship.

- *5. Exploration of the vocational interests of the class and of the abilities and qualifications of individuals in terms of vocations.

10 A Units

- *1. Orientation to the Rocky Mountain Region with special reference to natural, human, and cultural resources and their conservation, including an attack upon such problems as:
- a. Knowing the value of our minerals, forests, coal and oil fields, game, water, soil, and the like.
 - b. The wise use of our human resources and the recognition of the contribution of the several races and nationalities in our state or region to the common life.
 - c. Recognizing the contributions to living which are found in our native literature, painting, music, ceramics, dancing, and the like, and sharing in such activities whenever possible.
- *2. Learning how public opinion is formed and studying the sources of information upon which we rely, such as radio, newspapers, movies, magazines, books, hearsay superstitions and beliefs, and also how the thinking of the pupils in the class and their expression may become more intelligent and critical.
- *3. Boy and girl relationships and the problems of friendship. This would include discussion of the criteria by which friends are chosen and the responsibilities of immediate personal-social relationships.
4. Budgeting and spending an allowance or the money which one earns.

11 B Units

- *1. Studying the community of Denver with special emphasis upon health, housing, recreation, government, transportation, education, communication, city planning, the arts in Denver (music, painting, murals, stained glass, sculpture, architecture, literary activities), food and water supplies,

crime, and the general vocational life of the city, including surveying the community for available part-time work.

- *2. Recognizing and learning how to deal with consumer problems such as:
 - a. Judging the quality of goods (Consumer Research).
 - b. Studying advertising and the methods of marketing, including the problem of patent medicine.
 - c. Developing taste and discrimination in the selection of goods and services and methods of purchases.
- 3. Studying the conflicting economic systems of the world and the various ways of providing for production and consumption.

11 A Units

- *1. Understanding democracy and its unique character, including a study of the documents of democracy, the lives of our democratic leaders, and the place of minority groups in the nation. This includes a study of comparative governments.
- *2. Understanding and appreciating the American heritage in art, music, literature, religion, ideas and ideals, and the American way of life.
- *3. Facing some of the urgent problems in American life, such as civic irresponsibility, degrading economic inequalities, possibilities of improving life in a machine age, education, the American home, and the problems of technological unemployment.
- 4. Exploring special interests with emphasis upon the use of leisure time.

12 B Units

- *1. Developing maturing appreciations of the resources which make life worth living:
 - a. In the creative expression of others, that is, in plastic-graphic arts, music, drama, literature, and the like.
 - b. In the world of nature and science.
- 2. Studying the problems of investments, savings, commercial law, and the like.
- 3. Exploring the problems of philosophy and ethics and at-

tempting to build a framework for a philosophy of one's own.

12 A Units

- *1. Exploring vocational opportunities in the community and in the nation.
- *2. Studying the problems of employment in:
 - a. Training for a job.
 - b. Applying for a job.
 - c. Employer-employee relationships.
 - d. Finding the cultural aspects of vocational life.
- 3. Participating in a vocational trek into the community.
- *4. Exploring the problems of living in a modern family through:
 - a. Determining the responsibilities of every age group in such a relationship.
 - b. Identifying the practices in a democratic home.
 - c. Considering the economic problems of the home and the budgeting and spending of the family income.
 - d. Planning for recreation in the home.
 - e. Making the home livable and attractive.
 - f. Studying the origins of family standards, traditions and beliefs.
 - g. Considering the problems of eugenics, inheritance, courtship, marriage, divorce, and the care of the children.
- *5. Taking stock of three years at high school and planning for the years which follow.

THE CORE CURRICULUM IN THE TULSA PUBLIC SCHOOLS⁵

*not broken down
SS. 1 eng.*

Physical Development

A. How can I keep well?

- 1. How do the different parts of my body work?
- 2. What harm is there in the use of tobacco and alcohol?
- 3. Why should I be required to take gym?
- 4. What kinds of food should I eat?

⁵ Excerpts taken from mimeographed bulletin titled "Building a Core Curriculum in the Tulsa Public Schools," Tulsa Public Schools.

5. How can I be most comfortable in very hot or very cold weather?
- B. How can I improve my appearance?
 1. How can I improve my posture?
 2. How can I improve my complexion?
 3. How can I control my weight?
- C. How can I help others to keep well?
 1. How do diseases spread?
 2. How do vaccination and inoculation prevent disease?
 3. What first aid can I give?
 4. How do crowded living conditions affect the health of the individual?
- D. Am I developing as I should?
 1. How does heredity affect my growing up?
 2. Why do people differ?
 3. What effect does my environment have upon me?

Personal-Social Problems

- A. How can I get the most out of my school experience?
 1. How can I get acquainted with my school?
 - a. How can I find my way about the building?
 - b. How can I use the library?
 - c. Where can I find the people whose help I need?
 - d. How do I spend the lunch period?
 - e. What school regulations must I know?
 2. How can I plan my school work?
 - a. What subjects can I take that will be of the most benefit?
 - b. How can I get into the activities that I want?
 3. How can I make new school friends?
 - a. What kind of friends should I try to make?
 - b. How can I be popular?
 - c. How do my actions affect other people?
- B. How can I be happy in my home relationships?
 1. What are my responsibilities to my home?
 2. What part should I have in solving family problems?
 3. Why can't I have a larger allowance?
 4. How can a family play together?
 5. How can I make my home a better place in which to live?

- C. What part does religion play in our lives?
1. What is the relation between science and my religious beliefs?
 2. What part does the church play in the community?
 3. What part does religion play in my daily life?
 4. Why do so many pictures deal with religious subjects?
 5. Why do people have different religious beliefs and customs?

Broad Social Problems

- A. How should I treat people of other races?
1. What rights do Negroes have?
 2. Has the Indian been treated fairly?
 3. Do foreigners make good citizens?
 4. How have other races affected our living?
- B. How do workers and employers cooperate for our good?
1. Why do workers form unions?
 2. How are we affected by strikes?
 3. How can strikes be avoided?
 4. Why is it difficult for workers and employers to agree?
- C. Why are there so many accidents?
1. What can I do to prevent traffic accidents?
 2. What are the dangerous occupations?
 3. How can I avoid accidents at home and at school?
 4. What does our community do to protect us from accidents?
 5. Who pays for accidents?
- D. How do we form our beliefs?
1. How much of what I hear over the radio can I believe?
 2. In what ways am I affected by the movies?
 3. How much can I believe of what I read?
 4. What faith can I put in advertisements?
 5. What is a pressure group?
- E. Why is there so much crime?
1. Why do people break laws?
 2. Why is there more crime in some communities than in others?
 3. How can crime be reduced?

4. How can I tell whether a thing is right or wrong?
5. Why are there different laws in different localities?

SUGGESTED UNITS AND PROBLEMS FOR ORGANIZING
7TH GRADE—CURRICULUM (FULL TIME)

- I. Orientation to School (6 weeks)
 - A. What should I know in order to get a good start in school?
 1. Acquaintance with school and teachers
 2. Rules and regulations
 3. Traditions and customs
 4. Purchase of school supplies
 - B. What is the best way for me to study?
 1. Budgeting time
 2. Reading techniques
 3. Conditions favorable for study
 4. Library
 - C. How can I get to school safely?
 1. Traffic regulations
 2. Traffic rules for bicycles
- II. Home and Family Life (30 weeks)
 - A. How can I budget my allowance?
 - B. What changes have taken place in family life?
 1. Primitive life
 2. Changes in home facilities
 3. Family life in other countries
 - C. How can a family play together?
 1. Music in the home
 2. Family games
 3. Leisure reading
 4. Entertaining
 5. Courtesy in the family
 6. Vacations and outings
 7. Pets
 - D. How do things work for our convenience?
 1. Electrical equipment—lights, door bells, irons, etc.
 2. Telephones
 3. Gas
 4. Water

- E. How can I make my home more attractive?
 - 1. Interior decoration
 - 2. Gardening
 - 3. Pictures
- F. What are my responsibilities in my home?
 - 1. Care of clothing
 - 2. Care of family property
 - 3. Care of room
 - 4. Family jobs
 - 5. Relationship with brothers and sisters
 - 6. Relationship with parents
- G. How does my home life affect my development?
 - 1. Crime and juvenile delinquency
 - 2. Handicapped
 - 3. Gangs—good and bad
- H. How can my home be made democratic?
 - 1. Participation in family council
 - 2. Responsibilities in home
 - 3. Equality of needs in the home
 - 4. Individual freedom
 - 5. Cooperation in the home
- I. How is my home dependent upon the outside world?
 - 1. Public utilities
 - 2. Protection
 - 3. Food and clothing
 - 4. Public health regulations

SUGGESTED UNITS AND PROBLEMS FOR ORGANIZING
8TH GRADE CURRICULUM (1 ELECTIVE HOUR)

- I. Orientation Through Personal Analysis
 - A. What are my talents and how can I make the best use of them?
 - 1. Personal analysis
 - 2. Study of talented people
 - a. In the community
 - b. In public life
 - c. In literature
 - d. In cinema, radio, stage

3. Opportunities for development of talents through activities
 4. Educational guidance
 5. Vocational guidance
 - B. How can I learn to be sure of myself?
 1. Manners and conduct
 2. Difference between what is right and what is wrong
 3. Self-confidence (biographies)
- II. Man in His Environmental Setting
- A. How do climatic conditions affect plant and animal life?
 1. Food
 2. Influence of plant and animal life on human activities
 - B. How does environment influence the dress, food, social customs, homes, etc., of a people?
 1. Comparison of social customs in different sections of U. S.
 2. Social customs of different European countries
 3. Life in South America, Africa, and Asia
 - C. What effect have climate and natural resources had on the migrations of peoples?
 1. Spread of early peoples to Europe
 2. Colonization
 3. Westward movement in U. S. history
 4. Colonization today
 - D. Why have some nations industrialized and others remained agricultural?
 1. Effect of raw materials
 2. Geographic location
 3. Power
 - E. What effect have machines had on man?
 1. Standards of living
 2. Development of natural resources
 3. Capitalistic system
 4. Production and consumption
 - F. How has power been used for man's advancement?
 1. Kinds of power
 2. Communication

3. Transportation
4. Machinery

SUGGESTED UNITS AND PROBLEMS FOR ORGANIZING
9TH GRADE CORE CURRICULUM (2 ELECTIVE HOURS)

I. Orientation: Personal-Social Relations

A. How can I improve my appearance?

1. Posture
2. Complexion
3. Weight
4. Dress
5. Hair

B. How can I get the most out of my allowance?

1. Dress
2. Recreation
3. Necessities
4. Savings

C. How can I make friends?

1. Discrimination in friends
2. Assets of good personality
3. Boy and girl relationships
4. Correct social behaviors
5. Friends between members of the same sex

II. Problems of the Community

A. How did Tulsa develop into the oil capital of the world?

1. Topography of Oklahoma
2. Early history of Oklahoma
3. Effect of oil in the life of Tulsa

B. What cultural advantages does Tulsa have?

1. Music
2. Art
3. Architecture in Tulsa
4. Libraries
5. Schools and colleges
6. Churches and religious organizations

C. How does Tulsa provide recreation for its citizens?

1. Parks
2. Playgrounds

3. Coliseum, theaters, Convention Hall
4. Y.M.C.A., and Y.W.C.A.
5. Unorganized recreation
- D. How is Tulsa governed?
 1. Type of government
 2. Evaluation of government
 3. Suggested reforms
- E. How does Tulsa protect its citizens?
 1. Fire department
 2. Police department
 3. Public Health
- F. How does Tulsa finance its government and activities?
 1. Budget
 2. Taxes
- G. What vocational opportunities does Tulsa offer its young people?
 1. Professional opportunities
 2. White-collar jobs
 3. Factories and shops
 4. Mercantile business
 5. Unemployed
- H. How does Tulsa care for its unfortunates?
 1. Homes for boys and girls
 2. Handicapped
 3. Hospitals
- I. Are Tulsa's public utilities adequate for its needs?
 1. Gas
 2. Water
 3. Lights
 4. Transportation
 5. Government ownership and regulation *vs.* private ownership

SUGGESTED UNITS AND PROBLEMS FOR 10TH GRADE
CORE CURRICULUM (3 ELECTIVE HOURS)

I. Orientation Unit

- A. How can I get the most out of my school experience?
 1. Acquaintance with building

2. Personnel

3. Library

4. Rules and regulations

B. How can I plan my school work?

1. Course of study

2. Extra-curricular activities

C. How can I learn to study?

1. Study habits

2. Aspects of thinking

3. Reading skills

D. How can I make new friends?

1. Kinds of friends

2. Popularity

E. How can I develop a well-rounded personality?

1. Manners and conventions

2. Dress

3. Personal appearance

4. Self-confidence

5. Poise

II. Health

A. How can I improve my appearance?

B. How do the different parts of my body work?

C. How does the community help me to keep well?

III. Democracy

A. What are the principles upon which a democratic society is based?

B. How have these democratic ideals and principles affected the history of government and political activities in the U. S.?

C. How may I participate in government itself to promote processes of desirable evolutionary change?

~~IV. Public Opinion~~

V. Safety

A. How can I learn to drive safely?

B. What social responsibility do I have when I drive a car?

C. What does our community do to prevent accidents?

~~VI. Our Country in Its World Setting~~

SUGGESTED UNITS FOR 11TH GRADE (4 ELECTIVE HOURS)

1. Crime
2. Conservation
3. Housing
4. Labor problems
5. Government and politics
6. Taxation and public finance
7. Consumer education
8. Economic and social security
9. Investment and personal finance
10. Business organization

SUGGESTED UNITS FOR 12TH GRADE (5 ELECTIVE HOURS)

1. International relations
2. Family organization
3. Appreciation courses
 - art
 - music
 - literature
 - drama
 - cinema
 - radio

ANALYSIS OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES⁶**A. Purpose**

Trends in education have revealed a need for a better understanding by both educator and pupil of the communities in which they live. For some time teachers have used community resources, but no systematic or uniform approach toward the use of all resources has ever been made. The following material has been compiled through the cooperation of school and community people in order that there may be:

1. A more thorough survey of all community resources which have educational value.

⁶ Excerpts from L. Flanagan, A. V. Myers, and G. Rendelman, *Community Resources, Des Moines Public Schools*, mimeographed, 1940, 138 pages.

2. A better classification to enable the community to make definite and effective contributions.
3. An opportunity for the community to work systematically and harmoniously in the educational program of Des Moines.
4. A better understanding by teachers and pupils of their particular community.
5. Cooperative teamwork, because of a better acquaintance between school and community people, for the most effective educational program possible and for a common meeting ground in assuming the responsibilities of education.

B. Development

The thinking, as expressed in the purposes of this project, has been present for some time in the minds of both community and school people. On a number of occasions, both groups have expressed a sincere desire for the creation of a definite organization through which common problems and responsibilities could be met cooperatively. School groups, as opportunities have presented themselves, have studied this matter.

In September, 1939, the presidents, or appointed representatives of seventeen school groups were called together. The proposal for such an organization was presented to them with the request that in each case they present the matter to their respective groups in order that each group might decide whether or not it wished to work on such a plan. Practically all groups approved the proposal and either elected or appointed two representatives who would actually carry on the work.

This group, composed of the representatives of the cooperating school groups, then faced the task of bringing in a representative and willing community body. A list of some sixty community organizations was made to which letters of explanation and invitation were sent. The list was always left open for any community group which wished to affiliate. The response was very gratifying with forty-five joining.

In November, 1939, the first meeting of representatives of the school and community organizations was held. Further explanation of possible plans was made, and those present voted unani-

mously to attempt an organization whereby some of the above stated purposes might be realized. A steering committee of ten, five community and five school representatives, was appointed to formulate the necessary structure of organization and plan of procedure.

In January, 1940, the steering committee made the following report to the second general meeting of school and community group representatives:

A survey of Des Moines was to be made

a. in the following areas of living:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| (1) business | (8) inter-cultural relations |
| (2) consumer educa-
tion | (9) occupational opportunity |
| (3) education | (10) practical and fine arts |
| (4) government | (11) public welfare |
| (5) health | (12) recreation |
| (6) home | (13) religion |
| (7) industry | (14) safety |

b. based on the five channels by which the school reaches the community:

- (1) excursions
- (2) guest speakers
- (3) pupil participation in community activity
- (4) demonstration
- (5) visual materials

This survey was to be made available through some sort of handbook.

During the remainder of the school year, the survey was made. The questionnaire and personal-interview method was used, and the materials so gained were compiled, and edited into this production. However, it will be noted that three areas have been omitted. It was felt that home was so inclusive that it would be covered in many of the other areas. Thus, it was left for consideration in another year's work. The area of education was so involved in the entire report that it could not be segregated. Due to the fact that the schools were sponsoring a vocational survey, a survey on occupations seemed a needless duplication.

C. Use

Each year there will be need for corrections, revisions, and additions. It is hoped that many teachers and other community persons will participate in the future by making suggestions as to new materials and new uses of materials described.

This survey is decidedly general. The community as a whole has been taken into consideration. There is no doubt but that there is considerable economy in energy and time for schools to use resources within their particular neighborhoods when these meet their needs. It is self-evident that this survey could not go into detail. Thus individual schools are encouraged to proceed with like surveys of their own districts. The survey has not been designed for any particular areas of study, or grade levels. Teachers may be able to use this general survey as an aid in writing source units for their particular areas of study and grade levels.

Out of the work of school and community representatives have come the following suggestions for use of this handbook:

1. In many instances more than one agency or firm is listed so that teachers will spread their requests, and have access to other willing help when the first call is not successful.
2. For the most effective contact:
 - a. Follow as nearly as possible suggestions made as to size of classes, advance notice, hours involved, and such. These represent expressions of the community agencies themselves.
 - b. Learn as much as possible about the resource before the student contact is made.
 - c. Have the class prepared for the contact.
 - d. Give the community, firm, or agency as much preparation as possible as to what is desired by the school.
 - e. Give evidence of appreciation for community cooperation, and thus leave the door open for further contacts.
3. Make clear to any firm which has given all the time it can afford to use for groups that week, or month, or season that there is no criticism of their decision.

(Some of the typical listings are presented below to show the range and the limitations:)

A. City Clerk

City Hall

Second Floor

1. Function of the Agency: Clearing house and recording of all council activities

2. Excursion: Yes

a. Size of Groups Welcome: 12 to 15

Time Most Convenient:

For Council meetings, Monday and Thursday mornings

For office detail, any other time, preferably afternoon

Grade Level: Senior High

b. Contact: City Clerk, City Hall, 4-2181

c. Restrictions: No

3. Guest Speakers: Yes

a. Furnished in this field of government? Yes

b. Furnished in other fields of government? No

c. Arrangements for guest speaker to be made with: City Clerk, 4-2181

4. Demonstrations: Not readily demonstrable except at place of work

5. Visual Materials Available: Yes

a. Grade level served: Senior High

b. Types of Visual Material: Registration forms, precinct maps

Permit applications, forms
for Council proceedings

c. Contact: Clerk or Deputy, City Hall, 4-2181

6. Pupil Participation: Yes

a. Pupils may cooperate with this department by: Promoting voter interest and registration activity

b. Grade level of participation: Senior High

B. City Plan and Zoning Commission and Zoning Board of Appeals

City Hall

Second Floor, north end of building

1. Function of the Agency: Pursuant to law, to serve as an advisory body to the City Council. To study, investigate

and hold public hearings on matters referred to the Planning or Zoning Commission, submitting report to the Council with recommendation

2. Excursion: Yes
 - a. Size of Group Welcome: 8 or 10
Time Most Convenient: Any time if appointment is made
Days' Advance Notice: One week
 - b. Contact: Executive Secretary of City Planning and Zoning Commission, 4-2181
 - c. Restrictions: No
3. Guest Speakers: Yes, if given advance notice
 - a. Furnished in this field of government? Yes
 - b. Furnished in other fields of government? No
 - c. Contact: Commission's Executive Secretary, City Hall, 4-2181
4. Demonstrations: Yes, if given advance notice
 - a. Types of Demonstration: By comparative maps and charts of the subjects under consideration
 - b. Contact: Zoning Commission, 4-2181
5. Visual Materials Available: Yes
 - a. Types of Visual Material: Maps and reports
 - b. Contact: Either Secretary or Engineer of the City Plan and Zoning Commission, 4-2181
6. Pupil Participation: Yes
 - a. Pupils may cooperate with this department by: Obtaining through the schools up-to-date publications relating to the Comprehensive City Plan, also by having speakers address citizen groups and students of the various schools

Additional Items:

The City Plan and Zoning Commission as well as the Zoning Board of Appeals invite, urge and welcome an active interest by the citizens of Des Moines in good planning and zoning for the future, following a pattern as nearly as possible at all times which, under the Comprehensive City Plan, comprises —POPULATION, MAJOR STREETS, TRANSIT AND

TRANSPORTATION, PARKS AND RECREATION, HOUSING, URBAN LAND USES AND ZONING**E. Department of Public Affairs**

City Hall

Mayor's Office and Clerk's Office, Second Floor

Health Department, First Floor

Legal Department, Third Floor

1. Function of the Agency:

"The Department of Public Affairs is comprised of the Legal Department, Municipal Court, City Clerk's Office and Municipal Garage. In addition to these the Mayor appoints, with approval of the Council, the following Commissions and Boards: Board of Adjustment, City Plan Commission, Civil Service Commission, Comfort Station Commission, Housing Commission, Park Board, Playground Commission, Smoke Abatement Commission, and Wrestling Commission. The Dance Commission is appointed by the Council, and the members of the Water Board are nominated by the Mayor and elected by the Council. All special Police Commissions are issued by the Mayor.

"It is the duty of the Mayor to sign all legal documents of the city, accept service of notices for the city, preside at Council meetings as well as act as chairman of the Board of Health and chairman of the Board of Review. The Mayor also has general supervision over all departments.

"The City Clerk's office is the place through which all City Council business passes including the Council Proceedings, Board of Review, and records of the Council's action, ordinances and special assessments. This department also handles the Voters' Permanent Registration for Des Moines."

2. Excursion: Yes**a. Size of Group Welcome: About eight**

Time Most Convenient: The Council sessions, held on Monday and Thursday, would probably be most convenient and most interesting.

ADVENTURE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

Council sessions begin at nine o'clock a.m.

Grade Level: Junior High and Senior High

b. Contact: Heads of various departments, 4-2181

c. Restrictions: No

3. Guest Speakers: Yes, on certain occasions. "The average employee's time is so completely taken, that it is rather difficult to supply speakers on short notice or for frequent occasions."

a. Furnished in this field of government? Yes

b. Furnished in other fields of government? No

c. Contact: Mayor's office, or secretaries in the various departments, depending on departments pupils care to visit, City Hall, 4-2181

4. Demonstrations: Yes

a. Types of Demonstration: "The council session is one demonstration of the working of local government, and is open to the public."

b. Contact: "Perhaps some one of the City Officials or Legal Department would be available, and various employees, if arranged for." City Hall, 4-2181

5. Visual Materials Available: Yes

a. Grade level served: Junior High and Senior High

b. Types of Visual Materials: "Printed material, such as 'The Des Moines Plan of Commission Government,' 'Annual Report of City of Des Moines,' and 'Ordinances' "

c. Contact: Mayor's secretary, or secretaries of the various departments, City Hall, 4-2181

6. Pupil Participation: Yes

a. Pupils may cooperate with this department by: "Participating in High School Day. More extensive study of local government. The City of Des Moines has a pamphlet, 'The Des Moines Plan of Commission Government, As in Operation in the City of Des Moines,' which is available for use if wanted. Acquaint themselves with various ordinances, particularly those relating to traffic regulations, and *practice* and *talk* traffic safety."

b. Grade level of participation: Junior High and Senior High

M. Smoke Abatement Department**City Hall****South end of building in the basement**

1. **Function of the Agency:** The Smoke Abatement Division of the Department of Public Affairs has as its major function the enforcement of the Smoke Abatement Ordinance No. 3617. In other words, trying to abate or to lessen the the amount of smoke and other injurious pollutions in the air of the city of Des Moines, by means of an extensive educational program, making recommendations as to adjustments or changes in equipment and smoke stacks and by trying to seek out and abate sources of air pollution.
2. **Excursion:** Yes
 - a. **Size of Group Welcome:** Between 10 and 15
Time Most Convenient: 8:00 a.m. to 12:00 m.; 1:00 to 5:00 p.m., winter and fall most interesting
Days' Advance Notice: Three or four days
Grade Level: Junior High, Senior High
 - b. **Contact:** City Smoke Inspector, Richard N. McAlwee, City Hall, 4-2181
 - c. **Restrictions:** No
3. **Guest Speakers:** Will try to serve
 - a. **Furnished in this field of government?** Yes
 - b. **Furnished in other fields of government?** No
 - c. **Contact:** City Smoke Inspector, Richard N. McAlwee, City Hall, 4-2181
4. **Demonstrations:** Yes
 - a. **Types of demonstration:** "A small group might be taken out to witness how smoke violations were determined, shown the methods used to grade smoke. Then, too, tours might be conducted to ideal, efficient, modern, smokeless plants."
5. **Visual Materials Available:** Yes
 - a. **Grade level:** Junior High, Senior High
 - b. **Types of Visual Material:** "We will try to be in a position to furnish Ringlemann Charts (method used for determining density of smoke) and other visual mate-

rials which we hope to have available from time to time."

c. Contact: City Smoke Inspector, 4-2181

6. Pupil Participation: Yes

a. Pupils may cooperate with this department by: "Many students in the higher grades tend to the furnace of their home. I believe that herein lies a potential reduction in the amount of smoke from the chimneys of Des Moines. That is to say, after obtaining proper firing instructions they can perform a great aid in using that knowledge and applying it to their home firing duties. I believe, too, they can help materially by prodding the interest in smoke abatement. In other words, they can help the program by keeping alive an active interest in pure air and a cleaner place to live by BEING SMOKE CONSCIOUS."

b. Grade level: Junior High, Senior High

L. State Conservation Commission

Mulberry Building, Second Floor

Tenth and Mulberry Streets

1. Function of the Agency: "To carry out the state's conservation program as it is related to fish, game, parks and other state lands and waters."

2. Excursions: "No, our quarters are somewhat limited and not particularly suited to excursions. A trip through our office would not give a very good picture of the work of our department. We would rather furnish speakers, visual aids and so forth in illustrating the work of the State Conservation Commission."

3. Guest Speakers: Yes

a. Furnished in this field of government? "Yes, we can furnish guest speakers from all the divisions, Administration, Fish and Game, and Lands and Waters."

b. Furnished in other fields of government? No.

c. Contact: Superintendent of Information, 4-5263.

4. Demonstrations:

a. Types: "We are prepared to give demonstrations, by means of slides, movies and lectures of the various phases of our work."

5. Pupil Participation: Yes

- a. Pupils may cooperate with this department by: "Participation in winter feeding, shelter building programs, and others of our activities that have been or may be carried on through the schools."
- b. Grade Level: Grades six through twelve.

INDEX

- Activities promoting student growth, 114-115
- Activity periods, 201
- Adaptation, principle of, 4, 5, 9
- Administration (*see also* Administrators): autocratic, 295; democratic, 298-299; general organization of, in Thirty Schools, 184-197; problems of, in curriculum reconstruction, 295-306; role of, in teacher growth, 291
- "Administrative Council," work of, 186
- Administrative reports, 298
- Administrators (*see also* Administration): courage of, 236-237; as engineers in human relations, 216; experimentation by, 225-226; outside relationships as concern of, 301-304; participation of, in planning, 111; timidity of, 225, 226, 235-236; and teacher growth, 231, 250; visitation by, 248; vocational guidance, responsibility for, 303-304; work of, summarized, 208, 294-295
- Adolescent (*see also* Adolescent concerns, Adolescent needs, Adolescent-needs approach, Needs, Pupil): concerns of, 315-320; core curriculum based on needs of, 44; participation of, in community life, 341, 342, 344, 346, 347; no place for, in our culture, 179-180, 181
- Adolescent concerns (*see also* Adolescent needs): independence, establishment of, 316; normality, 319-320; personal relationships; self, role of, in society, 318-319; summary of, 315-320; understanding behavior, 317-318; understanding the universe, 320
- Adolescent needs (*see also* Adolescent concerns, Adolescent-needs approach): areas of living linked with, 74-75; conflicts with social demands, 72-74; consideration of, in preparing source units, 52-54; as criteria for content selection, 75-76; generalized list of, 85-88; mathematics to meet, 64-67; personal-social character of, 62-63; teachers' analyses of, 96; ways of meeting, 89
- Adolescent-needs approach, 41, 44-61; justification for, 85; methods used in, 89; organization of, an example, 56-58; in scope determination (*see* Scope); and social-demands approach, combination of, 97-99; summary of, as to curriculum sequence, 101
- Adult activities (*see* Social-demands approach)
- Adult education, one program in, 239-241
- Adult needs (*see also* Social-demands approach), as basis of core curriculum, 32
- Adviser (*see* Guidance, Home-room)
- Advisory Council in "school within a school," 197
- Agencies: influencing child development, 202-203; special, contributing to teacher growth, 220-221, 257-289
- Aikin, Wilford M., xxii, 137
- Aims (*see also* Objectives), statement of, by Committee on Evaluation and Recording, 104-105
- Alberty, Harold B., xxii, 49
- All-faculty (*see* Whole-faculty, Teacher planning)

- Analyses:** "expanding horizon" types of, 82-83; of objectives, techniques in, 14-21; and syntheses, in teacher growth, 218
- "Analysis of Community Resources,"** 337-347
- Analytical devices** in suggesting core activities, 50-52
- Anecdotal records** in analysis of objectives, 18, 19
- "Areas of Living,"** 42-44, 74; adaptations of, in curriculum reconstruction, 89-90; adolescent needs linked with, 74-75; analysis of, in content selection, 79; concept of, in one revised curriculum, 94-95; survey based on, in one community, 181-182
- Articulation of program:** "areas of living" as means of, 312; curriculum committees' work regarding, 186-187; by regional councils, 250; as topic for faculty meetings, 239
- Arts, the** (*see also* Assemblies, Dramatic arts, Industrial arts, Movies): 140-145; in general education, 278, 323; "life-problems" approach in, 226-227; materials of, as textbooks, 145; schedule provisions for, 143, 313; in school clubs, 173-174; in school programs, 143-144; teacher growth through, 257-258; as topics for faculty meetings, 241-242; Workshops of, 241
- Assemblies:** interpretation of school to community, through, 204; mental-hygiene benefits of, 141; student-planned, 140-141; types of, 243
- Authoritarianism** in education: assumptions of, 105-106, 152; effects of, 106-108; *vs.* democratic practices, 105-111
- Basic courses** (*see* Core curriculum)
- "Basic Relationships of Living,"** 50-52
- Behavior:** characteristics, as aims, 104-105; understanding of, adolescent concerns about, 317-318; patterns, examination of, in analyzing objectives, 15-18
- Block schedule** (*see also* "School within a school"): advantages of, 115-116; organization of, in senior high school, 198-199; teachers' work in, 198-199
- Broad-fields courses:** advantages of, in a science course, 27; assumptions in organizing, 24; criticisms of, 24, 26, 32; in curriculum organization, 23; definition of, 23; problem area in, 47; scope of, determined by two approaches, 24; summary regarding, 310
- Bronxville Workshop,** 72
- Bulletins,** current types of teacher, 22
- Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education,* 4
- Caswell, Hollis L.,** 41
- Centralization** of teaching, responsibility for, 194-196
- Cherokee project,** 167-171
- Choices,** intelligent, importance of, 153-154
- Citizenship education,** home-room responsibility for, 174
- City-curriculum councils** (*see* Regional curriculum councils)
- City school systems,** policies councils of, 187-193
- Civics, community** (*see* Community, study of)
- Classroom:** organization of, 112; planning in the, 56 (*see also* Teacher-pupil planning, Pupil-teacher planning); purposes in, 121-122; visits to, by Curriculum Staff, 271-272
- Classroom practices** (*see also* Practices): check list for democratic, 155-156; concepts effecting changes in, 142; concerns for needs, effect on, 88; guidance in,

- 129-130; purposes characterizing good, 154; reorganization of, summarized, 309-314; and teacher growth, 219-220, 223-228
- Classroom techniques (*see also* Classroom practices), 121-125
- Clearing-House services of Curriculum Staff, 274-275
- Clinics, curriculum, 278-280; as aids to teacher growth, 274
- Clubs (*see* School clubs)
- College Follow-up Study, findings of, 302, 309; purpose of, xxii; report of, 21; services of, 289
- Colleges: cooperation of, in the study, 302; Eight-Year Study proposal to, xx; and schools, need for greater cooperation between, 302
- Commission on Human Relations, 44, 315
- Commission on the Relation of School and College, xvii, xix
- Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, 1918 report of, 4
- Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, reports of, 44, 85
- Committee of Ten, 3
- Committee on Evaluation and Recording, statement of aims by, 104-105
- Committees, teacher (*see also* Policies councils), 184-187
- "Common man," faith in, 10
- Communication, skills of, as an objective, 95
- Community (*see also* School and community): adolescent participation in life of, 303; concept of school's function by, 179; criticism of schools by, 203-204; as part of curriculum, 137; interpreting school to, 202-208, 302-303; problems, study of, in one core curriculum, 324-325; as resources reservoir, 136; and school, cooperation between, 135-138, 303-304; joint analysis of, by school and, 337-347; and teacher growth, 253-255; understanding between school and, need for, 302; services of, in cooperation with schools, 181-182; starving of schools by, 313; study of, 136-138, 337-347; study of, essential in curriculum planning, 9; study of, as part of curriculum, 180-181; survey of, sponsored by policies councils, 190; teacher, part of, in life of, 258-259; as textbook, 145; trips, as methods of studying, 136-138; a unit on, 326-327
- Community agencies, teacher cooperation with, 255
- Community life, adolescent participation in, 303, 341, 343, 344, 346, 347
- Community resources, analysis of, in one community, 337-347
- "Concerns of Adolescents," 44, 315-320 (*see also* Adolescent, Adolescent needs, Adolescent-needs approach)
- Conferences: as means of interpreting school to community, 207; pupil-parent-teacher, 192-193; teacher-Consultant, as aid to teacher growth, 273-274; value of, in promoting school-community understanding, 302-303
- Conservation, class-made movie on, 141-142
- Consultants (*see also* Curriculum Consultants, Curriculum Staff): special, as aids to teacher growth, 270
- Consumer research, a unit on, 327
- Content (*see also* Subject matter, Scope and sequence): difficulties in determining, 72-77; meaning of, 138; use of, check list for, 156
- Continuity in Consultant assistance, xviii
- Continuity of groups, 59, 91, 196, 198, 199, 232, 251, 303, 312
- Cooperative planning (*see also* Planning, cooperative, Teacher-pupil planning, Pupil-teacher planning, Administrators, Community), 111-113, 192-193

- as indicated by the Study, 314; curriculum-making, evolution of, 295; sterility of, 179; for "today or tomorrow?" 73-77; trends in, as topics for faculty meetings, 242; purposes of (*see* Education, purposes of)
- Education, purposes of (*see also* Objectives): 1-2, 120-121, 299; classroom discussion of, 108; examples of practices serving, 110-111; statements of objectives concerning, 13; religious, 2; revealed in history of education, 2-5; utilitarian, 2
- Eight-Year Study (*see also* Curriculum Staff, Directing Committee, Evaluation Staff, Records and Reports Committee, Thirty Schools): one advantage of, to schools, 118; beginnings of, **xxix**; colleges' co-operation with, 302; Curriculum Staff of, services given by, 270-286; freedom of schools intended by, 216; future of education, as indicated by, 314; membership of, **xix-xxiv**; objectives of schools in, 5; original plan of, **xx**; resistance of teachers to change in, 307-308; results of, as to curriculum reconstruction, summarized, 309-314; teacher growth aided by, 256-257
- Elementary school: core curriculum an outgrowth of experimentation by, 312; experience of, valuable to secondary schools, 251
- English courses: experiences in, 321; experimentation in, 224; "life-problems" approach in, 225-226; self-evaluation in, 148-151
- Evaluation (*see also* Records, Reports, Self-evaluation): changes in, after Workshop participation by teachers, 264; concepts of, 305; dynamic, not static, 152; as part of learning, 146; problem of, in program planning, 1; provision for, in one core program, 325; purposes of school as criteria for, 203; by students, 148-151; teacher observations as method of, 147-148; techniques of, 146-151; traditional, inadequacies of, 146, 304-306; of trips, 137
- Evaluation Staff: need for and organization of, in the Study, **xxi-xxiii**; objectives, re-statements of, stressed by, 273-274; report by, 21; services of, 288
- Exchange positions, 268
- Excursions (*see* Trips)
- Exhibits as means of interpreting school to community, 206, 253
- Experimentation: for teacher growth, essential, 223-228; as a topic for faculty meetings, 241-242
- Extra-curricular activities (*see also* School clubs, School government, Student government): relation of, to classwork, 174; student government regarded as, 163
- Facilities, use of, as topic for faculty meetings, 243
- Faculty (*see also* Teachers, Teaching): informal associations among, 248; discussions, value of, 235-237; meetings, functions of, 237; meetings, topics for discussion at, 237-244; meetings, typical problems considered in, 184 (*see also* Whole-faculty planning)
- Faculty-psychology, 3, 306
- Faith: in democracy, 93; as requirement for teacher growth, 210-212, 217, 291-292
- Fawcett, H. P., 66
- Field trips (*see* Trips)
- Films (*see* Movies)
- "Floating" teachers, 228, 241
- Foreign languages, teaching of, 138-140
- Forums, community, 192
- Fraternities and sororities, 173
- Fredericks, O. I., 50, 78
- Freedom, feeling of, essential for teacher growth, 215-217
- Functional teaching, in mathematics, 64-65

- Functional thinking (*see* Problem solving)
- Fused courses (*see also* Adolescent-needs approach, Social-demands approach, Unified studies), 34
- General education (*see also* Education): arts, the, in, 140-145; broad-fields courses in, 24; one core program in, 320-328; guidance program in, 194-196; meanings of, 6-7, 56; need for broad, 299; objectives of, specific, 6-7 (*see also* Objectives); philosophy of, 12; problems in, 278-280, 296; one program in, 93-99; purpose of, 85 (*see also* Objectives); vs. special education, 243; a whole-school project in, 167-171
- "General Education" course, 7; daily planning period in a, 195-196; organization of, 194-196
- Geometry, value of, in developing behavior traits, 66-67
- Giles, H. H., xiii
- Grade-curriculum committee, 185, 186
- Grade-faculty conferences, 232
- Grade-level committees, 90
- Grades (*see* Evaluation, Records, Reports)
- Group thinking in a democracy, 10
- Guidance (*see also* Guidance program, Home-room): core courses in, 99; and curriculum, inseparable, 131; extension of, essential, 296; in one "general education" course, 194-196; home-room as an outgrowth of function of, 174, in personality development, 324; sequence plan in, 199; teachers' experience in, essential for core work, 59; as a topic for faculty meetings, 238
- Guidance programs: administration of, 193-194; in block schedule, 198-199; conferences in, 200; provisions of, in one system, 20; scheduling, 201; types of, 200-201
- Harap, Henry, xiii
- Health (*see also* Personality development): mental and physical, in one core program, concern for, 323
- Heterogeneous grouping, advantages of, 92
- History, American, example of reorganized course in, 61-64
- Hofmann, Hans, 152
- Home-economics classes: in general education, 246; parent participation in, 303; a whole-school project involving, 167-171
- Home-room, 174-175; functions of, 193-194; rise and decline of, 174, 175, 296; teacher as adviser in, 193-194; variety of organizations of, 194
- Home visits: by teachers, 207, 240; teacher growth aided by, 253-254
- Homogeneous grouping, fate of, in curriculum reconstruction, 296
- Independence, adolescent concerns about establishing, 316-317
- Individual differences: consideration of, in classroom practices, 155; provision for in one core program, 94
- Individualism in a democracy, 10
- Industrial arts: "life-problems" approach in, 226; role of, in one whole-school project, 168-171
- In-service development of teachers (*see* Teacher growth)
- Insights, sources of, for teacher growth, 222
- Institutes and Special Courses, 266-267
- Integrated courses (*see* Core curriculum)
- Integration: need for, in classroom practices, 129-130; of school life, 158-183; teacher growth dependent largely on, 222
- Intelligence: faith in, of common man, 12; free play of, in a democracy, 10, 11

- Interests (*see also* Needs): as bases of curriculum reconstruction, 86, 87; (*see also* Curriculum reconstruction); development of, 324; Questionnaire, 127
- "Job analysis" as basis for curriculum, 78
- "Jury," selection of sequence by, 98
- Kaulfers, Walter W., xxiii, 138
- "Knowing" pupils (*see* Guidance)
- Knowledge, loss of, 184
- Language, functional approach in teaching, 138-140
- Larson, Esther, 61-62
- Leaves for teachers, 260-261
- Lectures, criticism of, in teacher education, 261
- Lester, John A., xxiii
- "Life," pupils' questions concerning, 126-127
- "Life-demands" approach (*see also* Social-demands approach), 4
- "Life-problems" approach (*see also* Adolescent-needs approach, Core curriculum, Problems), 225-228
- "Little school" (*see* School within a school)
- McCutchen, S. P., xxiii
- Maladjusted pupils, planning by, 114, 147-148
- Marks (*see also* Evaluation, Progress reports, Records, Reports): traditional, inadequacies of, 71, 306
- Marriage, adolescent concerns in establishing successful, 316
- Marshall, Leon C., 78
- Materials: securing of, in social-demands approach, 82; teacher growth aided by, 244-245; as textbooks, 145
- Mathematics (*see also* Geometry): applied, in one core program, 322; to meet pupil needs, 64-67; techniques of problem solving in, 129; and science fusions, 34-35
- Meetings: faculty (*see* Faculty meetings); professional, 268
- Meiklejohn, Alexander, 210
- Memorization, authoritarian assignments of, 105-107
- Mental discipline; as aim of education, 3-4; lack of, in broad-fields approach, 32
- "Mind training," emphasis on, decreasing, 303
- Mississippi program, based on social demands, 41-44
- Mississippi State Curriculum Committee, 74
- Mores, adolescent concerns about, 315
- Motion pictures (*see* Movies)
- Motivation: problem of, in social-demands approach, 83-84; of student interest, 125
- Movies (*see also* Dramatic arts): class-made, to interpret school to community, 205; examples of school-made, 141-142, 330
- Music (*see* Arts, the)
- "Nature of Proof," 66-67
- Needs (*see also* Adolescent needs, Adolescent-needs approach, Adult needs, Social-demands approach): analysis of, essential in curriculum reconstruction, 312-313; anticipating future, difficulty in, 83-85; basic, in all persons, 290; as criteria in scope determination, 26; illustrative list of, 8-9; meeting of, as a purpose of education, 5; personal, in a democracy, 11; personal and social, concepts of, 7-8; survey of, by Policies Council, 192
- Needs approach (*see* Adolescent-needs approach)
- New-Fist, 69
- Normality, adolescent concerns about, 319-320
- Objectives (*see also* Education, purposes, General education, purposes): analysis of, 14-20; con-

- sideration of, in reorganizing subject matter, 68; essentials for school's attaining of, 183; faculty committee on, 185-186; faculty participation in formulating, 294-295; failure to function, reasons for, 12-13; functions of, 12; as guideposts, 20; of general education, 6-7; individual and group development as, 104; intelligent problem solving as an, 176; problem of, in program planning, 1-21; as stated in one program, 93; statements of, 12-14; statements of, by Evaluation Staff, 273-274; statements re-examined, as aids to teacher growth, 273-274; summary regarding, 20-21; teacher-pupil concern with, 54
- Panel discussions, radio broadcast of, 204
- Parent (*see* Parents)
- Parent-teacher cooperation (*see also* Conferences, Cooperative planning): need for, 230
- Parents: conferences with, importance of, 302-303; grade meetings of, 204; participation of, in conferences, 192-193; in curriculum planning, 111, 191-193; planning with teachers, an aid to teacher growth, 254-255; progress reports preferred by, 306; social-demands approach approved by, 81; as teachers, 255
- Personal analysis, orientation through, unit, 332-333
- Personal characteristics (*see also* Behavior, Personal-social relationships): development of, a purpose of education, 5; needed in a democracy, 11-12; evaluation of, 147-148
- Personal living, as a problem area, 50
- Personal-social problems and relationships: adolescent concern about, 315-316; as bases of curricula, 44; in two core curricula, 329-330, 334; survey of, as approach to a single-subject experimentation, 225
- Photography (*see* Movies)
- Physical development (*see also* Health): considerations of in one core curriculum, 328-329
- Physical education, 57
- Planning (*see also* Conferences, Cooperative planning, Planning, cooperative, Pupil-teacher planning, Teacher-pupil planning): in adolescent-needs approach, 44-48; of an American History course, 63-64; check list for, 155; in the classroom, 54-56 (*see also* Classroom practices); for Consultants' services, 281-288; duplication in, 90; importance of, 55; unintelligent, results of, 153
- Planning, cooperative, 57, 152-153, 191-193, 254, 311-312; in core program, 45-56, 311-312; by core teachers, 57; examples of, among teachers, 60, 123-124, 153, 228-258; problems and values of, 121-124, 278-279; spring and fall, 234-237
- Planning period in a "general education" course, 195-196
- Poetry, study of, as an example of democratic practice, 108-110
- Policies councils: advisory function of, 188; authority, range of, in, 191; committee organization in, 188; examples of, 187-193; problems considered by, 189; as topic for faculty meeting, 244; Workshops established by, 189-190
- Policy making, school, 247-248
- Practices (*see also* Classroom practices): authoritarian, 105-111 (*see also* Authoritarianism); democratic (*see* Democratic practices); difficulties in, 122; and purposes, inseparable, 102
- Predetermined scope and sequence (*see* Scope, Scope and sequence, Sequence)

- Prediction of needs, impossibility of exact, 83, 89
- Primitive cultures, education in, 2
- Principal (*see* Administration, Administrator)
- Problem, setting up of, in classroom, 122-123
- Problem areas: criteria for selection of, 48-50; examples of, 42, 47
- Problem solving (*see also* Problems approach), 176-178; in adolescent-needs approach, 45 (*see also* Adolescent-needs approach); analysis of, 176, 177; techniques of, in mathematics, 129; whole problem in, 178
- Problems: course designed on, 47; definition of, essential, 178; and problem areas, distinction between, 46; suggested, in two core curricula, 325-337 (*see also* Units)
- Problems approach (*see also* Problem solving): difficulties in, 132; meaning of, 119; in a science course, 27-32; in a social-studies class, 131-134; steps in, 133-134; values of, 145
- Professional associations as aids to teacher growth, 268-270
- Professional development (*see also* Teacher education, Teacher growth): broad experience essential for, 217-218; feeling of freedom essential for, 216; prerequisites for, 214-218; self-confidence essentials for, 215
- Program planning, problems in, 1-21
- Programs (*see* Curriculum)
- Progress reports supplanting marks, 306
- Progressive Education Association, organization of the Study by, xix
- Public school system, purposes of education at inception of, 2-3
- Publications, professional, 269
- Pupil (*see also* Adolescent, Adolescent-needs approach, Teacher-pupil): background of, surveyed in adolescent-needs approach, 46; concerns of, 126-127; growth, activities promoting, 114-115; intelligence in planning by, 55; parent-teacher conferences with, 240; participation of, general, 118-119, 192-193; planning by, 38, 45, 47, 73, 111, 112, 117-118, 147-148, 199 (*see also* Cooperative planning); protection of, from consequences, 162-163; questions from, 126-128; self-evaluation by, 148-151; transfer of, an exaggerated problem, 91-92; teacher-pupil relationships (*see* Pupil-teacher planning)
- Pupil-teacher planning (*see also* Cooperative planning, Teacher-pupil): in a core program, 38; gradations in, 122-123; as a means of interpreting school to community, 208; predetermined content conflicting with, 74-75; problems of, 278-279
- Puritanism as a social force, 171
- Radio: use of, in interpreting school to community, 204; teacher growth aided by use of, 244
- Reading: in problems approach, 144-145; program, wide, essential, 321-322; readiness for, 84
- Reconstruction of curriculum (*see* Curriculum reconstruction)
- Records (*see also* Evaluation, Reports): anecdotal, 18, 19; of behavior, as supplanting marks, 306; check list for, 155; cumulative, 46; and evaluation, 145-151; self-evaluation, 148-150
- Records and Reports Committee, services of, 288-289
- Reflective thinking (*see* Problem solving)
- Regional-curriculum councils, 250-252
- Religion: problems of, considered in one core curriculum, 330; pupil questions concerning, 126
- Remedial work, guidance leads to functional, 129

- Reorganization of curriculum (*see* Curriculum reconstruction)
- Reorganization of subjects, 23, 61-68; examples of, 61-68; techniques involved in, 67-68
- Repetition of study, desirability of, 90, 92
- Reports (*see also* Evaluation, Records): descriptive, supplanting marks, 71; exchange of, 304; from school to school, by Curriculum Staff, 271; by students, 150-151
- Research (*see also* Problem solving): essential in problem study, 133
- Resources, organization of, 112-113 (*see also* Community resources)
- "Responsibility-Dependability," fostering of, by democratic vs. authoritarian practices, 105-113
- Revision of curriculum (*see* Curriculum reconstruction)
- Revisions, techniques of, summary, 23-61
- Rocky Mountain Workshop, 49
- Safety, problems of, in core curricula, 324, 330
- Scheduling (*see also* Time), 113, 244; changes in, for greater flexibility, 300; of Curriculum Consultants, 284-287; two-hour periods, 99
- School: as coordinator of agencies influencing child, 203; criticism of, by community, 203-204; function of, 179 (*see also* Education, purposes); government (*see* School government); contacts with other, 248-257; to community, interpreting of, 202-208 (*see also* Community); orientation of student to, suggested units, 325, 331; purposes of, 120-121, 158, 178, 203, 205-206 (*see also* Education, purposes, General education, purposes, Objectives)
- School buildings: inadequacy of, for group meetings, 113; as problem in curriculum reconstruction, 69
- School clubs, 171-174; criticism of, 172-174; decline of, reasons for, 300-301; history of, 171; social distinctions fostered by, 173; student leadership in, 172; time provisions for, 172
- School government (*see also* Student government), 158-165; concepts of, 158; constitutions of, 159-160; criticisms of, 159-165; as extra-curricular activity, 163; functions of, 160-161; inflexibility of, 164; participation in, 159; purposes of, 164; student responsibility fostered by, 162-163; teacher participation in, 164-165; time devoted to, 163
- School life, divorced from daily living, 134
- "School within a school," 196-199, 233, 243-244; organization of junior high, 197; reasons for, 196; schedule-making in, 330; strength of, 198
- Science: applied, in a core program, 323; in general education, 279
- Science: physical, subject-matter analysis in, 25-27
- Scientific thinking (*see* Problem solving)
- Scope (*see also* Scope and Sequence): analysis of, as sequence determinant, 79-80; determination of, factors in, 77; needs approach to determining, 96; of one reconstructed curriculum, 93-96; social-demands approach in determining, 78-85; summary regarding, 312-313
- Scope and Sequence (*see also* Scope, Sequence): in one core program, 320-321; problems of, in curriculum reconstruction, 70-100, 279; problems of, summary, 100-101; techniques in determining, 40; traditional curricular attempts to solve problems of, 100-101
- Self-evaluation, 148-151
- Self-government (*see* School government, Student government)

- Seminars, school, for teachers, 267-268
- Sequence (*see also* Scope and Sequence): in one core program, 43-44; determination of, by co-operative planning, 98; in "little schools," 199
- Single-subject fields (*see also* Specialists): reorganization of, experimentation in, 222-228
- Skills, use of, in core program, 144-145
- Slides, as a means of interpreting school to community, 206
- Social cooperation, analysis of, as an objective, 18
- Social demands (*see also* Adult needs, Social-demands approach): analysis of, 78-79
- Social-demands approach, 40-41; advantages of, 79-82; assumptions in, 44, 83; in determining scope, 78-85; disadvantages of, 82-85; example of, 41-42; meaning of, 77; postponement of study in, 83; in a physical science course, 27-32; repetition in, 82; as scope determinant in a broad-fields course, 24; summary concerning scope and sequence in, 101
- Social distinctions, fostering of, by school clubs, 173
- Social forces, use of, in classroom practices, check list of, 155
- Social-living courses (*see* Core curriculum)
- Social science, "life-problems" approach in, 227
- Social service and school life, connection between, 165-171, 301
- Social studies: fusion with English, 34-35; in general education, problems of, 279-280; problems approach in, 131-134
- Society, adolescent concerns about self in, 319-320
- Socrates, 179
- Sororities and fraternities, 173
- Source units (*see also* Units): development of, principles in, 75-76; functions of, 52-53; procedure in preparation of, 53-54; as solution of certain conflicts, 74-76
- Southern Study, 304
- Space (*see also* Scheduling): organization of, 113
- Spanish, teaching of, an example, 139-140
- Special fields, teaching in, 138-145
- Specialists: as consultants in core work, 60; and core teachers, co-operation between, 143; importance of, in preliminary planning, 47; in one whole-school project, 168-171
- Spontaneous-anonymous approach, 131
- Spring and fall planning (*see also* Planning, Policies councils), 234-237, 247-248
- State programs of study, 252-253
- Steering Committee, class, 114
- Stem courses (*see* Core curriculum)
- Student (*see also* Pupil): chairmen, 113; government, 300, 301 (*see also* School government); growth, 114-115, 290 (*see also* Personal development); reports of progress, exchanged, 304; school clubs, leadership in, 172
- Study, the (*see* Eight-Year-Study)
- Study hall, administration of, by students, 162-163
- Subject fields: analysis (*see* Subject-matter analysis); reorganization of, summarized, 310
- Subject matter (*see also* Content): as means, not an end, 119, 138; problem of, in program planning, 1; selection of, in a physical-science course, 30
- Subject-matter analysis, 24-27
- Subjects, organization of curriculum by, in broad-fields courses, 24
- Summer school, as aid to teacher growth, 260
- Survey: course (*see* Broad-fields course); of resources in community, 337-347; as aid to teacher growth, 255-257

- Teacher (*see also* Teachers, Teaching): "block" (*see* Block schedule, School within a school); as counselor, 130-131; as director, not dictator, 124; faith by (*see* Faith); home-room (*see* Home-room); observations by, as evaluation means, 147-148; participation of, in analyzing objectives, 19, 294-295; as a person, 252-253, 257-258, 289; purposes characterizing a good, 154
- Teacher education (*see also* Professional development, Teacher growth): Bulletin on, published by a Policies Council, 191; co-operative efforts fostering, 228-258; in-service, 260-268; institutes and special courses in, 266; Workshops in, 262-267
- Teacher growth (*see also* Professional development, Teacher education): administrator's responsibility for, 291; aids to, summary of, 306-309; challenge essential for, 212-213; clinics as aids to, 274; community, participation in life of, an aid to, 258-259; concept of, 210; conferences with Consultants, an aid to, 273-274; curriculum coordination and, 248-253; departmental conferences an aid to, 245-247; discovery, role of, in, 213, 289-290, 308; experiences contributing to, 218-228; experimentation essential for, 223-228; grade-faculty conferences and, 234; home visitation, an aid to, 253-254; on the job, 210-256; inter-school contacts, as aids to, 251-252; materials in, 244-245; objectives, re-statements of, essential for, 273-274; procedures, organization of, steps in, 221-223; participation essential for, 269; planning with pupils an aid to, 245; school-community relations in, 253-255; seminars, as aids to, 267-268; through special agencies, 260-292; special Consultants' role in, 270; stimuli to, 308; and student growth, parallel, 290; summary of factors in, 289-292; whole-faculty planning as aid to, 234-237; Workshops' contribution to, 262-267
- Teacher-pupil activities (*see also* Pupil-teacher): in democratic practices, 111-120; planning (*see* Teacher-pupil planning); relationships, 55, 194, 196, 229-230 (*see also* Guidance)
- Teacher-pupil planning (*see also* Planning, Pupil-teacher planning), 57, 117-118; concepts of, 48; in a guidance program, 200; process of, 45; in sequence plan, 199; teacher growth aided by, 245
- Teachers (*see also* Teacher, Teaching): absorption of, in mechanics, 179; assignments dictated by, an authoritarian practice, 105-108; authority of, to act, 249; as classroom *prima donnas*, 229; conferences among, essential, 116; conference participation, 192-193; core program's effectiveness depends on, 311; core, and specialists, cooperation between, 145; informal relationships among, 248; judgment of, in preparing source units, 54; some problems raised by, 287-288; resistance of, to curriculum reconstruction, 274, 207-308; security of, in predetermined sequence, 99; security, professional, of, 75; social-demands approach in security of, 80-81; sources for, 211; special study by, as aids to teacher growth, 260-268; and student government, 164-165; traditional attitudes toward, 55; traditional techniques, reasons for using by, 103; Workshop participation by, 262-266
- Teaching (*see also* Teacher, Teacher growth, Teachers): centralization of, 194-196; new concepts of, 307; cooperation in single class, 231; of foreign languages, 138-140;

- guidance in, 130-131, 202; and planning, cooperative, 228-258
- Techniques (*see* Practices)
- Tensions (*see* Adolescent needs, Needs)
- Tests (*see* Evaluation)
- Thinking (*see* Problem solving)
- Thirty Schools (*see also* Eight-Year Study): autonomy of, xxi, xxii, 22; general administration of, 184-187; names of, xx-xxi; objectives of, 5; philosophy of general education of, 12; summary of work of, in Study, 293-313
- Time (*see also* Scheduling): allowance for, in core work, 58; organization of, 113
- Topical treatment, example of, 63-64
- Topics of study (*see also* "Areas of Living," Content, Economic relationships, Personal-social problems, Subject matter): search for, 125; standards for choosing, 128-129
- Traditional curriculum, 100-101
- "Training the mind," as a purpose of education, 3-4
- "Transfer of training," assumption of, 6, 176
- Transfers of students, problem of, exaggerated, 91-92
- Trips, 114-115, 180-182; cautions concerning, 180; community study by means of, 136-138; evaluation of, 137; while making a movie, 142; types of, in one school, 137; as whole-school projects, 301
- Tulsa Conference on Education, 266-267
- "Typical Points of Focus of Concerns of Adolescents," 315-320
- Unified-studies approach (*see also* Core curriculum), 34-36; summary regarding, 311
- Unit plan of study, 33
- Units of study (*see also* Source units): in one American history course, 62; sequence of, in one core program (*see also* Scope and Sequence); suggested, in two core curricula, 325-328, 331-337
- Values: clarification of, for teacher growth, 222; democratic (*see* Democracy, Democratic); unity of, 232-233
- Visitation (*see also* Home visits, Trips): class, by Curriculum Consultants, 271-272; faculty, 248
- Visual aids (*see also* Exhibits, Movies, Slides): teacher growth aided by, 244-245; use of, to interpret school to community, 205
- Vocational awareness, 322
- Vocational guidance, responsibility of administrator for, 303-304
- Vocations, units on, in one core program, 328
- Water, study of, in a physical science course, 28-29
- Weidemann, C. C., 44
- Whole-faculty planning (*see also* Teacher planning), 234-237
- Whole-school projects, 165-171; examples of, 167-171; purpose of, as consideration in evaluation, 166-167; trips as, 301
- Work habits, development of desirable, 323
- "Workshop period," 267
- Workshops (*see also* Bronxville Workshop, Denver Workshop, Rocky Mountain Workshop): aid to teachers in meeting source materials problems, 313; of the arts, 241; establishment of, by Policies Council, 189-190; local school, 265; nominal, 265-266; operation of good, 262-263; outcomes of teacher participation in, 263-265; teacher growth aided by, 262-267; teachers, influence on practices of, 210-211, 226-227
- Youth (*see* Adolescent)
- Zechiel, A. N., xxiii

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